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In Memoriam: Charles Maltador Purin (1872-1957)

DR. CHARLES MALTADOR PURIN, whose name deserves an enduring place in the annals of modern foreign language teaching in America, died in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, on September 18, 1957. Born at Riga, Latvia, on August 14, 1872, he was therefore more than eighty-five years old when he died, but he was still an active and devoted teacher. He almost literally "died in harness": he had left in the morning to teach his classes as usual at the Milwaukee University School, was taken ill at the school, and died that evening in a hospital. It was a fitting end to a lifetime of service to his profession.

Coming to the United States as a boy, in 1894, young Purin attended the National German-American Teachers Seminary in Milwaukee, from which he was graduated in 1898. A year later he not only acquired by naturalization the American citizenship of which he was always so proud, but he also won the devoted wife who shared his long life of usefulness—the former Hedwig Hermione Reinsch. Dr. and Mrs. Purin had two sons, Carl and Alexander, who with their mother survive.

Purin was always first and foremost the teacher. He taught in various types of institutions, from schools to colleges and universities; but it may be of interest to note that he began and ended his long career in elementary or secondary schools, the heart of our educational system. After his graduation from the Teachers Seminary, he taught (1898-1903) in public schools in Chicago and Milwaukee. From 1903 on, he was a student at the University of Wisconsin, always a leading center of Germanic studies and indeed of all the modern humanities, receiving his A.B. in 1907, his Master's degree in 1908, and his Ph.D. in 1913. In the meantime he had resumed his teaching career. From 1907 to 1910 he was head of the modern foreign language department of the East Division High School, Milwaukee; from 1910 to 1915 he

taught German at the University of Wisconsin; as instructor, assistant professor, and associate professor; from 1915 to 1922 he was head of the college division (and dean of men) at the Milwaukee State Normal School, now the State Teachers College. He was on leave as associate professor of German at the University of Texas in 1916-17. From 1923 to 1927 he was on the staff of Hunter College as lecturer, assistant professor, and associate professor.

In 1924 began a most significant period in Dr. Purin's life. When the Modern Foreign Language Study was established by the American Council on Education under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation, Dr. Purin was appointed one of the three "special investigators," who gave all their time to the Study for the next three years. In this post he was outstanding, both in conducting investigations and in obtaining the support and cooperation of modern foreign language teachers. I had the privilege of arranging a meeting in Washington during this period at which Dr. Purin was the main speaker; and although most of the audience was made up of teachers of French or Spanish, while his own field was German, he won their enthusiastic support and admiration, no small achievement in those days of petty jealousies among the languages. Dr. Purin's most lasting contribution was his volume *The Training of Modern Foreign Language Teachers in the United States*, published as one of the Study publications in 1929. This work centered attention on necessity for better-trained foreign language teachers as a foremost problem of the craft; the doctrine that he, and Stephen A. Freeman, and I, and others, have been preaching for many years—too often with the feeling that we are "voices crying in the wilderness," unappreciated and—what is far worse—unheard. One of my professional treasures is a report issued by a committee, under the chairmanship of Dr. Purin, of the Wisconsin Association of Modern Foreign

Language Teachers, and published in November 1927 in the *Bulletin* of the Association, edited by Mariele Schirmer. All the things we still hear about as sadly lacking in teacher-preparation are pointed out in this report: a decent major in the content-field (30 semester-hours); an adequate oral command of the language taught; a definite teacher-training curriculum; opportunities for observation and practice teaching; abolition of meaningless state licenses to teach foreign languages; opportunities for study abroad; and the like. As I am fond of saying, "How Old the New!"

Dr. Purin never lost his interest in better training for foreign language teachers and in respectable requirements for their certification. In 1948 the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations established a Committee on the Recruitment, Training, and Placement of Modern Foreign Language Teachers under the chairmanship of Dr. Purin, who set up state committees and worked industriously to gather the necessary information, as he had done for the Modern Foreign Language Study nearly thirty years before. A preliminary report appeared in the *Modern Language Journal* for October, 1953; but when the program of the Modern Language Association of America, financed by grants from the Rockefeller Foundation, found itself unable to undertake the analysis and interpretation of Dr. Purin's data, Professor James B. Tharp of Ohio State University generously came to the rescue, and with the cooperation of the University prepared a report—based on Purin's materials—entitled "The Status of the Academic and Professional Training of Modern Foreign Language Teachers in the High Schools of the United States," published in two parts in the *Modern Language Journal* for October and December, 1955.*

Dr. Purin was early marked as one who could contribute to the advancement of his profession. He was chairman of the Modern Language Section of the National Education Association in 1912 and of the Wisconsin State Teachers Association in 1913. He taught at various times in summer sessions at Western Reserve and

Northwestern Universities, and at Teachers College, Columbia University. Following his effective work for the Modern Foreign Language Study, Dr. Purin returned to his beloved Milwaukee, and to the service of his *alma mater*, as Professor of German and Director of the Extension Division, Milwaukee Center, University of Wisconsin, a post in which he served from 1927 to 1942, when he was retired. Still full of mental vigor, he taught at the Castle Heights Military Academy, Lebanon, Tennessee, from 1942 until 1950, and was teaching at the University School in Milwaukee when his final summons came.

His honors at the hands of his fellows would make a long list. For example, he was president of the regional association now known as the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association in 1930; of the Wisconsin Modern Foreign Language Teachers Association in 1935; of the American Association of Teachers of German in 1948; and from 1949 to 1952 he was president of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations. He served as an associate editor of the *Monatshefte für deutschen Unterricht* from 1928 to 1941. His published works, in addition to those already mentioned, include *Latvian Lyrics*, 1889; *A Standard German Vocabulary*, 1931; editions of various texts, including *Fortunatus*, in the Heath-Chicago German series; and, in collaboration, *A Conventional Approach to German* and *Lern- und Lesenbuch*.

Such a life as Charles Maltador Purin's should be an inspiration to any teacher. He was gentle, and he was a gentleman. He took disappointments with courage and faith. He never stopped working, despite age and failing strength. He is a symbol of the generations of dedicated souls—most of them unknown to history—who have made all human progress possible. All honor to him as colleague and friend!

HENRY GRATTAN DOYLE

The George Washington University

* See my *The Modern Foreign Languages: A Chronicle of Achievement*, in the *Modern Language Journal* for October, 1956, pp. 276, 291-92.

*The Problem of the Drop-Out in High School Language Classes**

“WHY do boys and girls ‘drop’ foreign languages at the end of their second year of high school?” This is the question constantly asked by language teachers. It represents one facet of the broader problem of continuity in the language curriculum, and for this reason, merits careful study by all persons concerned with education on every level—elementary, secondary and college. It is also closely related to the goals of the school, to the abilities, needs and interests of the pupils, and the competence of the teaching staff.

The Northeast Conference committee on the drop-out situation has undertaken a preliminary study of the problem. The present report will be supplemented by further research. At the meeting on April 13th the topic will be discussed by a panel of committee members and the conference participants will have an opportunity to express their views.

Requirements of State Departments of Education

The claim has often been made that one reason why foreign language enrollments are low is that they are not prescribed for graduation from high school. Indeed, an examination of the facts shows not only that languages are not required subjects, sometimes called “constants,” but further that they are not regarded as a required offering among the electives.

In September 1955 the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, issued a report entitled “High School Graduation Requirements Established by State Departments of Education” (1) by Grace S. Wright, specialist in secondary education. From the material collated and tabulated it appears that Delaware is the only State to require differentiated diplomas. For the academic diploma Delaware prescribes foreign languages. The requirements are summarized as follows: “The Academic Diploma calls for 2 units of Latin, 2 units of a second foreign language, 3 of mathe-

matics and 1 of science. The Scientific Diploma requires 2 units of foreign language, 2 of mathematics, and 2 of science.” (p. 5).

Some States strongly suggest requirements for pupils pursuing academic programs, and these requirements probably include foreign languages. Maryland is such a State. However this information has not been tabulated.

Along the same lines is the broadly optional requirement in New York. In the Office of Education report the New York State requirement is given as follows: “Each pupil must follow a 3-year sequence in one of the following fields: science, mathematics, foreign language, music, art of drawing, business subjects, practical and industrial arts or vocational subjects.” (p. 10)

New York and New York City

The system of Regents examinations in the State of New York recognizes the pursuit of foreign languages in the secondary schools for at least 3 years by offering a 2-year and a 3-year Regents examination in the six languages taught—French, German, Hebrew, Italian, Spanish and Latin.

Some senior high schools offer four years of foreign language study. But small high schools usually have difficulty in maintaining class registers. The 4-year Regents examination in foreign languages was discontinued a number of years ago. What effect did this change have on fourth year language enrollments?

In the high schools of New York City students who are taking the academic course must choose 3 years of one of the following electives: science, mathematics or foreign language. In addition, they must also offer 2 years of one of the other electives, and 2 years of a “miscellaneous” group, which includes the three elective

* Presented at the Boston Meeting of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages in the Kresge Auditorium, M.I.T., on Saturday, April 13, 1957.

subjects mentioned. Hence, the decision to take more than 2 years of language depends in part upon the student's preferences, and in part on other factors. The city's new Course of Study (2) provides for the study of languages in grades 8-12. Attention is given in the curriculum bulletin to continuity and articulation between the grades.

A cursory glance at the enrollment figures in foreign languages in New York City's 54 academic high schools shows that about 25% to 30% of the students in second year language classes continue into the third year of language. Of the third year students only about 2% enter fourth year language classes.

*Survey of Latin in New Jersey**

A spot check survey was made of the language situation in New Jersey with regard to drop-outs at the end of two years of Latin. A letter was sent to eighteen teachers in various sections of the State requesting them to list the reasons for drop-outs after Latin II. The replies are from fifteen teachers in public high schools and three private schools. These replies supply details which substantiate the concerns of educators who defend the "classics" in the public schools (3).

Below are the reasons given. The order of importance is not indicated.

1. Two year history requirement in New Jersey.
2. Conflict in scheduling.
3. Difficulty in scheduling Latin with various requirements for college.
4. College entrance requirements for boys in math and science (extra laboratory periods) make it difficult to carry any language in junior and senior year.
5. Colleges require either two years of Latin or no Latin at all.
6. Some colleges prefer two years of two modern languages.
7. Unsympathetic school administrators.
8. Tendency of guidance departments to by-pass languages, especially Latin, and to discourage carrying five majors.
9. Subject too difficult, especially Latin II.
10. Many students feel that they are not brilliant enough to continue Latin. Besides, it might spoil their chances of making the honor roll.
11. Inadequate preparation in junior high school makes Latin II difficult for students and thus they become discouraged.
12. Many students prefer not to take Latin as their fifth major for fear the work will interfere with their extra-curricular activities or with their social life.

13. The decline of the teaching of English in the elementary school makes the study of Latin difficult.
14. Attitude of parents who say that they never needed Latin so why should their children.
15. After two years students feel that they have had a basic foundation in Latin and they then take a modern language for college or personal reasons.
16. Those planning nurse's training think two years of Latin are enough.
17. Limited ability of students.
18. Some begin Latin in their junior year.
19. Latin not needed for future occupation or profession.
20. Attitude of Latin's being an auxiliary course to reinforce other subjects (e.g. English) or good pre-professional background rather than an important subject in and of, and for itself.
21. Increase in high school subjects added to the curriculum.
22. Tendency to elect the easy courses—too many "frills" and not enough emphases on good academic achievement.
23. Lack of interest in cultural subjects.
24. Present day emphasis on materialism and utilitarianism.
25. Contemporary unbookish and unintellectual faddism.
26. Emphasis on technological preparedness.
27. Lack of teacher training. Many teachers have Latin as a "poor" minor.
28. Some superficial and watered-down teaching prevalent in all types of schools.
29. Some uninspired teaching, reducing Latin to a grammatical "bag of tricks."

Survey of the Boston Public High Schools†

A survey of foreign language enrollments was conducted in the public high schools of Boston. Sixteen schools received a detailed questionnaire which was intended to elicit the opinions of pupils, guidance counselors, and heads of language departments. While the responses constitute simply an opinionaire, the survey indicates the complexity of the problem, the interrelationships of the school curriculum, the views of the teaching staffs and the influences of community attitudes.

Of the sixteen high schools included in this report, three (the two Latin schools and Boston Technical) have fixed curricula. The amount of language study, or the lack of it, is determined by the course the student has selected. In the college-preparatory courses, several units of language study are required.

* Survey conducted by Phyllis Winquist, President of the New Jersey Classical Association, Roselle Park, New Jersey.

† Survey conducted by Alice F. Linnehan, J. E. Burke High School, Dorchester, Mass.

Four other schools are comparatively small district high schools in communities where an interest in academic subjects is not high.

From the responses there emerge certain points worthy of careful consideration. First, most of the reasons for the drop-out between the second and third year of language study seem to be already known, since few others were added, although there was ample opportunity to write in additional explanations. Secondly, outside pressures and conditions seem to be exerting a great influence; the fault does *not* all lie with language teachers and the way they teach. There is a rather surprising agreement between language teachers and guidance personnel; they do not put the blame at each other's door; in fact, they are each inclined to be a little harder on themselves than on each other. Finally, it should be noted that two of the favored methods for increasing the holding-power of the languages (publicity and prognostic testing) have nothing to do with the way languages are taught in America today. Language teachers, by united effort and constructive planning, may be able to do as much to advance their cause outside the classroom as in it.

Enrollments for 1955-56 in Second Year Language

A comparison of the enrollment figures for successive years in second and third year language classes in Boston high schools is almost meaningless, since many pupils take a second year language in the ninth grade in the junior high school and do not continue it. We have no figures on the number of drop-outs at this point, and little information on why language study is discontinued.

Enrollments for 1956-57 in Third Year

Third-year language classes in the high school are greatly increased in size by the influx of junior high students who *do* go on with their language study. It is not possible, therefore, to give accurate figures on the number of pupils who have taken the second-year language in high school who do not continue it.

Spanish, German and Italian are most frequently reported as a second foreign language, after French or Latin. The drop-out between the second and third year of study, therefore, usually does occur in the senior high school. The

figures on the drop-out in Spanish, German and Italian may, consequently, be of some significance.

Reasons Given by Pupils for Dropping the Subject (Ranked in order of importance)

A. Administrative, Vocational or Personal Reasons

1. Completed the language requirement for the diploma.
2. Preferred a "useful" vocational elective.
3. Preferred another subject in wide choice of electives.
4. Tried to avoid any subject requiring much outside study.
5. Had to take a different subject to meet a diploma or college entrance requirement.
6. Part-time job or home responsibilities—no time for required home-work in languages.
7. Graduated.
8. Advised by school administrative or guidance personnel to take a different subject.
9. Left school.

B. Reasons related to Language Study

1. Found second-year hard; afraid to try the third-year.
2. Only two years required for college entrance.
3. Not interested in continuing.
4. Continuing Latin or another foreign language; no room for both.
5. Failed second-year language.
6. Preferred to start a different language.
7. Too hard to earn certification for college in upper years of language study.
8. Advised by language teacher not to continue.

Comments by Teachers

In considering the reasons listed in A. and B. above, the following questions and comments come to mind:

- A. 1. Teachers still rely on language requirements to keep up enrollments in languages classes. Pupils continue to drop out in great numbers when a requirement is completed. Schools and colleges are dropping, not increasing, language requirements. What is it within the power of the teacher to do to encourage pupils to continue their language study, *regardless* of requirements?
2. What are language teachers doing to meet this competition? How firmly do we ourselves believe in the value of language study for the majority of our pupils? What do we do in our own schools to bring these values to the attention of pupils, parents, counselors and our colleagues?
3. How reasonable are we in our assignments? How much time and thought do we give to making assignments interesting not just routine? How well do we understand the outside demands on our students' time? Is it made clear to students before they start a language that it will require considerable time for outside study?

4. Have we enlisted the aid of counselors in helping overburdened students to budget their time or make adjustments in the load they are trying to carry?
5. Able students might be encouraged to begin their study of a language earlier, so that they will have more than two years of it before they leave school. Were any unfortunates influenced to leave school by their experience in language classes?
6. Administrators and guidance personnel seem not to be necessarily enemies of linguists, in spite of what one may hear or read on that point!
- B. 1. Who scares our students? Why are they afraid of the third year? Was there no satisfaction in success after hard work? What did third-year students tell them about the work ahead?
2. Still using requirements as our principal means of keeping up enrollments?
3. Not interested. Why not?
4. Is this competition with other languages a *fact*, or an excuse? Is there *really* room for only one language?
5. Were all these failures necessary? Could the student do the work? Was the work planned to meet the needs and abilities of the student?
6. More competition from within the ranks! Do heads of language departments work with parents and counselors to discourage this "language-hopping?"
7. Is it really harder to earn certification in languages than in other subjects acceptable for college admission? Why?
8. Was this the right advice?
9. Most schools apparently do offer at least three years of the modern languages.
2. Lowering of diploma and college entrance requirements in languages.
3. Time and effort required for the mastery of a foreign language.
4. General lack of understanding of the role of foreign languages in the world today.
5. Emphasis on mathematics and science for college entrance.
6. Crowding of the high-school curriculum.
7. Lack of interest of some administrators and guidance personnel in the value of language study.
8. Uninteresting classes taught by old-fashioned methods.
9. Unqualified teachers assigned to language classes.

Negative factors #1, 2 and 3 are ranked considerably lower in importance by the guidance counselors than they are by the language teachers. While it is natural for guidance people to deny a lack of interest in language study (#3), the language teachers do not place much blame on this group either. Guidance workers, on the other hand, would seem to be in a better position than classroom teachers to judge the influence of competing subjects on language electives. Are language teachers, by any chance, prone to rationalize some of the decrease in language enrollments as the result of this competition, instead of taking steps to improve the quality and attraction of language instruction? Should #8 and 9 be ranked first in order of importance?

Teachers' Explanations of Drop-Outs (Ranked in order of importance)

1. Wider choice of electives in Grade 10; preferred another elective.
2. Thought third-year language study would be too hard.
3. Completed modern language requirement for the diploma.
4. Preferred to take a vocational subject.
5. Preferred to start a different language.
6. Lack of encouragement from administrative or guidance personnel.
7. Second-year language uninteresting.
8. Lack of encouragement from language teachers.
9. Failed second-year.

Negative and Positive Factors

In attempting to combat the wide-spread decrease in enrollment after the second-year of language study in this country, negative and positive factors must be considered.

A. Negative Factors (Ranked in order of importance)

1. Emphasis placed by parents on "useful" and vocational subjects.

Positive Factors (Ranked in order of importance)

1. Active publicity about the role of foreign languages in the world today.
2. Prognostic testing to screen out those not likely to succeed in language study.
3. Well-trained teachers.
4. Modern and varied methods of language teaching.
5. Increased use of audio-visual aids and modern language laboratories.
6. Better textbooks and educational materials.
7. Demonstrations of achievement in language classes to administrators and parents.
8. Closer supervision of classroom teachers.
9. Change in college entrance requirements to include aural and oral skills.

Additional Reasons for Drop-Outs

In examining the answers to the questionnaires, it is noted that mention was made of some factors not specifically included in the survey. These factors could not be tallied in relation to those listed, however, since they pro-

vide further clues to the situation they are reported below:

1. A pupil actively dislikes a language teacher, and refuses to have anything further to do with language study.

Do we just "write him off?"

2. Many pupils, although intelligent, are low in reading skills in English.

What can we expect of them in foreign language classes?

What can language teachers do to remedy the situation?

3. Many pupils have never in their home, among their friends, or in their neighborhood, had the opportunity to develop an interest in acquiring language skills of any kind.

Are we wasting our time with them in foreign language classes?

4. Some school curricula, because of administrative preferences or the influence of an aggressive "rival" subject department, really are loaded with subjects which makes it very difficult for the ordinary student to include a foreign language in his program.

What practical steps could an alert language department take to bring about a more favorable "climate" for foreign languages in a such a school?

5. Some one language teacher on tenure may be "killing off" prospective students by the way he conducts his second-year classes.

What can an administrator or a department head do about the situation?

6. Some beginning classes in languages are made to seem so much like play, with all the emphasis on songs, games and dramatizations, that pupils get a rude shock when they find that there is hard work to be done in the second-year classes. This experience occurs most often when the language is begun in the junior high school.

Better coordination, curriculum planning, and supervision would seem to be in order.

7. More provision for individual educational counseling in the upper years of the elementary and junior high schools should help to screen out beforehand the pupils who are not likely to succeed in the study of a foreign language.
8. Small schools have difficulty in setting up a program without conflicts of important subjects. Pupils who may wish to continue a language may find that a required subject conflicts.

9. Some guidance people claim language teachers "load on" the homework more than teachers of other academic subjects.

The questions and comments assembled in the Boston survey give a fair sampling of present trends in the rationale of the drop-out situation. But further study will be required to disentangle cause and effect.

College Requirements

There is a prevailing feeling that colleges and universities set the pattern for curricular offerings in the secondary schools. Undoubtedly this

is true, to a very large degree. However, not all students go to college. Is the pursuit of language study good only for the college-bound?

In recent years foreign language requirements in American colleges have been found to have deteriorated both quantitatively and qualitatively. Two studies present the facts (4, 5). One investigator has pointed out that a low entrance requirement—or none at all—does not necessarily mean that entering students are unacquainted with foreign language study. College policy may be influential also at the far end of the educational pole. Degree requirements, while one step removed from entrance requirements, do nevertheless form a part of the student's entire school experience.

Summary. The committee, which has been concentrating on the drop-out problem in high school, believes that this preliminary study provides guidelines that may serve as a basis for further inquiry. An analysis of the responses in the Boston and New Jersey areas reveals the many facets of the problem. Any effective solution must involve consideration of educational policy, of pupil population, staffing, professional preparation and in-service training, college requirements and community attitudes.

RENÉE J. FULTON

Bureau of Curriculum Research

Board of Education of the City of New York

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Tests as Selectors of Language Students

AN ASPECT of foreign language training which has received considerable interest from educators and psychologists is that of predicting performance in learning a foreign language. There are several reasons for this interest such as assigning students to language classes; identifying talent for learning a language; finding the lower limit of ability below which success in learning a language would be improbable; determining the effect that training in one language has on the learning of another; and developing special aptitude tests. While many of the studies have been unreliable and the findings contradictory, a fact which seems to have become accepted is that the best prediction of subsequent performance can be made on the basis of how well a person does on an initial tryout of a language. Evidence for this belief can be found in the conclusion of several studies. In 1929, Henmon (3) concluded that a trial period during which special prognosis tests and objective measurements were made furnished the best basis for prediction. Kaulfers (4) stated that nothing can be depended upon to predict success or failure as reliably as an actual tryout in the foreign language. In a more recent review of prognosis testing, Salomon (5) did not find any studies which would change these conclusions.

In the Armed Services, the proper selection of students for foreign language training is especially important since the number of students enrolled in a course is determined by the number of language specialists which is required. Because of this much work has gone into the development of adequate selection procedures. In a study conducted for the Army (2), the relationship between several possible selection variables and language proficiency measures was determined. The selection variables included such aptitude measures as word meaning, verbal fluency, memory span and code learning. The proficiency measures included written translation, written vocabulary, aural comprehension and aural answers to aural ques-

tions. It was found that grades at the end of the first two weeks of training were better predictors of final grades than any of the aptitude tests studied. It has also been the experience of the Air Force that the use of a trial course as a selection device is fairly effective. Previously, when selection was based on general verbal ability as measured by classification tests, attrition in language courses sometimes ran as high as 50 percent. The use of the trial course method of selection reduced this attrition to about 12 percent.

The purpose of this report is to describe a study which indicates that, at least in certain situations, specially designed aptitude tests are as effective as a trial course in predicting later performance in language training. The study was conducted to determine whether it would be feasible for the Air Force to use aptitude tests to select students for Russian language training. At the time of the study, a four week trial course was being used to select students for a longer six months Russian course. Since this was very expensive in terms of time and money, a more economical method was sought.

The language training under consideration is conducted by the United States Air Force Institute of Technology to meet the Air Force's need for personnel who are proficient in certain foreign languages. The training performance predicted in this study takes place in a six months' course in Russian. The objective of this course is to understand spoken Russian. Learning tasks include the learning of Russian sound patterns, grammar, and inflection, plus the memorizing of basic patterns and every day expressions. Daily classes consist of five hours of drill in eight man sections plus one hour of grammar instruction. The courses are taught at the Army Language School (ALS), Monterey, California, and at Syracuse University.

The students taking this training are airmen who have just entered the Air Force and who have been screened for verbal ability and in-

terest in language training. They are mostly high school graduates, although a few have attended college. In terms of general ability, they are similar to a college freshman population.

The methods compared were: (1) selection on the basis of performance in a four week trial course and (2) selection by means of scores on certain subtest of the Psi Lambda Foreign Language Aptitude Battery.

The content of the trial course was a review of English grammar, an introduction to the Cyrillic Alphabet, and Russian words and sounds. The purpose of this short course was to identify students who had the ability to succeed in the longer course. Usually about 40 to 50 percent of the potential trainees were eliminated from the trial course for lack of progress.

The four Psi Lambda subtests which were used are Phonetic Script, Words in Sentences, Spelling Clues and Paired Associates. A brief description of these tests is as follows:

Phonetic Script. The subjects are taught some of the phonetic symbols used in English phonology. A tape recording presents the sounds associated with the printed materials. First in the learning phase all syllables are presented; then in the testing phase only one syllable is presented. The subject is required to relate the sound to the correct syllable.

Words in Sentences. This is a test of grammatical sensitivity. It measures the ability to understand the function of words and phrases in sentences. Grammatical terminology is avoided. A sentence is given in which a word or phrase is underlined. The task is to identify a word or phrase in another sentence which has the same function as the underlined word or phrase.

Spelling Clues. The subject is presented with

an abbreviated, symbolic spelling of a word which must be identified in terms of its meaning. This is a speeded test.

Paired Associates. The subject has to memorize the English equivalents of 24 nonsense words. The test consists of two minutes study of the vocabulary, two minutes to practice active recall and four minutes for a multiple-choice recognition test.

A previous study has shown that a composite score based on a weighted combination of these four tests would give the best prediction.

A comparison of the two methods of selection was made by following the progress of classes selected by each method. The selection of airmen in ALS Classes R-34 and R-35 and Syracuse Classes 8-55 and 9-55 were selected by means of the trial course.

The airmen making up ALS Class 6-35 and Syracuse Class 3-56 were selected by test scores. These airmen were first given an orientation lecture concerning the language program and any airmen who decided that they were not interested in language training were given a chance to withdraw from the selection process. The airmen remaining were then given the tests and those scoring above a critical score were selected for the course.

The relationship between performance in the trial course or performance on the tests and grades in the Russian language course was determined. For the ALS classes, performance was measured by the average of oral and written final examination grades. For the Syracuse classes, performance was measured by a summation of grades for the two major working periods and oral and written final examination grades. The correlations are shown in Table 1.

These results indicate that the one hour bat-

TABLE 1. PREDICTION OF PERFORMANCE IN LANGUAGE TRAINING

	Number of Students	Correlation	Corrected Correlations*
Language Aptitude Composite Score vs			
Final Examination (ALS; R-35)	42	.44	.72
Course Grades (Syracuse; 3-56)	42	.42	.64
Trial Course Grades vs			
Final Examinations (ALS; R-33, R-34)	62	.39	
Course Grades (Syracuse; 8-55, 9-55)	52	.53	

* Correlation corrected for restriction of range due to selection on basis of Language Aptitude Composite Score.

tery of tests was as effective as the four week trial course in predicting performance in the six months course. A statistical analysis indicated that there is no significant difference between the uncorrected correlations. The corrected correlations for the tests are presented to show how well the tests would have predicted performance if all applicants has been admitted to the six months course regardless of their test scores.

Another way to interpret these results is to determine what percentage of satisfactory students are selected by each method. This value is influenced by three factors: the per cent of satisfactory students usually attained; the percentage of applicants who are admitted into training; and the validities of the selection methods. Based on figures obtained in the present instance, it could be expected that 72 per cent of those selected by trial course would prove to be satisfactory, while 81 per cent of those selected by means of the tests would prove to be satisfactory. Thus, it can be seen that the aptitude tests are a little more efficient than the trial course. This increased efficiency is due to the fact that when tests are used, more applicants can be screened than when the trial course is used.

The conclusion of this study is that a one hour battery of aptitude tests was as effective as a four week trial course in selecting Russian language trainees. This finding is at variance with a commonly held opinion that a trial performance in a language is the best predictor of subsequent performance. This points out the necessity of evaluating selection procedures in relation to the characteristics of particular situations.

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It is assuredly not always a bad thing that men imitate one another. Imitation is not merely picking up silly fashions and echoing idiotic phrases: a good example may be just as infectious as a bad one. Without imitation, there can be no civilized life, at any rate no linguistic life. If a child did not try to the best of its ability to talk like grown-up people or like children rather older than it, it would be permanently shut out from the common life of the spirit and really remain outside the human society.

—OTTO JESPERSEN

* * *

The Teaching of Hebrew in the Israeli Army

The Framework of Study

THE teaching of Hebrew in the Israeli army to non-natives is established only at the elementary level, subdivided into three stages excluding the preparatory one for illiterates. The general study period lasts approximately 180 hours, each stage consisting of 60 hours. At the conclusion of each stage of studies, the students are tested by special examinations and, according to the results, the lessons proceed on the appropriate levels. Teaching in the army is attached to the general framework of training exercises and, like them, it must adhere to a certain pattern. The stages must, therefore, be fixed within a certain limit that will be as flexible as possible, but will also represent a perfectly clear and compulsory target point, to be achieved within the time limit.

In order to secure maximum achievement and to control efficiency of method, the teachers are required to write a report on the number of lessons and on their contents in special notebooks. When 60 lessons have been completed, the students are tested and it is then determined how successful they have been. (Of course, the number 60 is largely a statistical average, but important as a time limit for the students, for the teacher, and for the officer-in-charge.) This direction of one's sights toward the goal has value for the student as well. His awareness of the goal intensifies his efforts. And experts in the matter suggest that diagrams be prepared in every class that demonstrate to the student the measure of his progress.

In the army, there is additional value in this since the soldier does not study through his own motivation, but from the force of a command. (Study is an obligation.) Add to this the fact of his physical fatigue and the value of arousing within the soldier-student an inner motivation is understood. The instructor heightens the incentive by dividing each stage into sections and also by concluding each unit with a comprehensive review of what was learned in this unit.

The following is the schedule of studies and the methods of instruction in each of the three stages in the course:

Elementary Hebrew

Stage 1

Definition. Beginners who are not illiterate and who have a general knowledge of the use of a number of words.

A. Goals:

1. To have the student acquire the knowledge of writing.
2. To have the student acquire the knowledge of reading.
3. To have the student acquire the ability to construct a correct Hebrew sentence.
4. To prepare the student to express himself freely in approximately 300-400 words about his daily needs.
5. Grammar: to learn the verb in the present tense. It is assumed that this tense alone will enable the soldier to express himself freely and in a manner comprehensible to his comrades and officers. And there is no need to weigh the student down with different tenses immediately. The principal difficulty in this respect will be in relation to the past tense. But the soldier will be understood if he adds the term "yesterday" to verbs in the present tense, thus conveying the meaning of the past tense. For example: "Yesterday I am standing guard at the gate and I see a soldier leaving. I stop him and ask him, 'Where are you going?' He does not speak and he runs forward. And I run after him and catch him."

As regards the future tense, the matter is simpler since in everyday language, we use the present very often when the future is required. Nor do we think ill of it. For example: A soldier turns to his buddy and asks him, "You are going to the movies tomorrow?" and "Are you going with us for a walk?" (And not, "Will you go?")

I should like to add that the restriction to

the study of the present tense is based upon an added factor: the level of the students is generally low. A considerable percentage of them do not know any grammar in a different tongue.

B. *The Lesson Plan:*

The most suitable study unit has been found to consist of 90 minutes. This unit of time allows for written work, too, and replaces homework which is not generally feasible within the military framework. The division of the lesson into its parts is suggested as follows:

1. Review: Its main goal is to ascertain that the students remember the previous material and to impress it further upon their memory. The duration of the review depends, of course, upon the knowledge of the previous material but the average length of time is 10 minutes and it is conducted in the form of a discussion. Of course, there is no requirement that the review come just at the beginning of each lesson. Much depends upon the subject under study and upon other conditions.

2. Preparatory Discussion: We do not open the new lesson with a lecture by the teacher, nor by reading. But we must prepare the students for reading the text by a preparatory discussion which must be very thorough and comprehensive. We must not confine ourselves to the material that is in the book. It is worthwhile to broaden the boundaries of this same material in order to establish the meaning of the new words that the teacher is planning to teach. There is no need to hurry and to fire new words at the students. The student must be able to absorb and digest these words. But let the teacher pause a little at each new word; let him write it on the board. The students copy it into a "dictionary" (see below); they compose sentences; they use it in different senses. There is no harm in even straying just a little from the central line of the discussion in order to establish the usage of the new words. But, of course, these digressions must not be exaggerated, so that the unity of the lesson is preserved.

In this discussion, the grammatical material must always be included, which means for beginners just the verb in its participle, masculine and feminine, and plural, and in nouns, the plural and the differentiation in gender. No

other grammatical material is given. The preparatory discussion is the most important part of the whole lesson and a half hour at least and perhaps even more, is devoted to it. Its goal is to move the student to speak and to give him the opportunity to learn and to remember the new words. It is, of course, difficult to conduct a real discussion with beginners because of ignorance of the language and the great lack of words. We mean rather a mechanical exercise of question and answer rather than a discussion that has no actual content. It is very important to begin with personal questions in order to arouse the curiosity of the students and to stimulate them to take part in the discussion, and only in progressive stages to arrive at the goal.

In order to preserve interest, the pace of the discussion must be rapid. A maximum number of students must be drawn in, even by repeating the same question a number of times. Most of the sentences are simple and the answer is almost a repetition of the words in the question, with the addition of a word or two. The content of the discussion is not the same as the content of the reading text, for, if it were, interest would be lost in the reading. But it is possible that content be related.

3. Reading: At the completion of the discussion, after the students use most of the new words and the technical difficulty in understanding the text has been removed, the teacher approaches the reading. In general, it is desirable that the teacher read aloud and slowly, the first time, to enable the students to hear the text as a whole and to grasp its essentials. Afterwards, the students read. It is desirable that a good student read first, in order that the great amount of hesitation not interfere with comprehension of the content and not give rise to boredom. Or that the whole class prepare for reading by silent reading at first, and afterwards, read everything aloud. Here, too, it is desirable that the good students read first. Duration of reading: 10-15 minutes.

4. Writing: The remaining time (approximately 30 minutes) should be devoted to writing. Since there are many individual differences in writing ability, the work ought to be individual. Everyone ought to be guided according to his own level of knowledge and the rate of his

progress. And there is no need to assign unified work. The activities in this stage are limited to: transcription of words, transcription from the book, composition of sentences, answers to questions, etc.

What is the aforementioned "dictionary"? A special notebook that is devoted to the listing of the new words. And this is done in the following manner: each page is divided into columns (in general, the page is divided in two); in one column, the Hebrew word is written and, in the second column its translation (each one translating into his own language), or its Hebrew equivalent, or a characteristic sentence for this word.

Certain teachers dislike the listing of words and explanations. They strongly suggest explaining every word in a sentence, because of the known fact that the explanation of a translation or a synonym is not exact and is likely to confuse the student in the use of words incorrectly. There is an additional value to this method because the composition of sentences is not only proof of the knowledge of usage, but strengthens memory. And therefore we usually compose sentences, but only after there has been a certain amount of time to digest the word. The active use of new words establishes firmly the knowledge of the words and impresses them upon the memory. For that purpose, auxiliary pamphlets for the teacher are prepared that contain many different exercises, both interesting and instructive.

5. Word Drill: It is desirable to devote the last 5 minutes to a short drill on the words that were learned through various study exercises arranged in special notebooks.

Summary:

The lesson plan is suggested as follows:

1. Review	10 minutes
2. Preparatory discussion	30 minutes
3. Reading	15 minutes
4. Writing	30 minutes
5. Drill	5 minutes

Stage 2

A. Goals:

1. To improve reading speed.
2. To improve writing speed.
3. To add to the vocabulary of the stu-

dents approximately 300-400 words.

4. To bring the students to a point where they can answer a question in writing in a few sentences, related to one another in subject matter (at the beginning of this stage) and to express themselves fully in a few sentences on topics based on everyday life (at the end).

5. To bring the students to a point where they can relate something in a few connected sentences.

6. Grammar: to review the present tense and to teach the past and future tenses without emphasis on conjugation.

B. The Lesson Plan:

The unit of time is also 90 minutes and it is suggested that it be divided, in this stage, into the following steps:

1. Review: This differs from the review in stage 1 inasmuch as it is more textual. Therefore it should not be a mechanical drill but a review that offers novelty and is relevant to the previous material. The review is oral and is conducted as a discussion. Of course, the opening of the lesson with a review is not mandatory, but should be decided according to the subject and the condition of the students, all of these being weighed by the teacher. In any event, it should always be remembered that the opening of the lesson is very important. It is the factor that stimulates the students' interest in the subject and, what is more important, invites them to take active part in study. Therefore, the body of the lesson should not be entered into immediately, but an opening should be made with questions from current events, from the lives and environment of the student and gradually, in a few moments, to lead them towards the subject of the new lesson.

2. Preparatory Discussion. In this stage, the discussion ought to be closer in character to a real discussion. Its function is not only to prepare the students to comprehend the text by clarification of the words, but also to stimulate the students' curiosity and interest in the reading text, which are so important to the absorption of the study content. The preparatory discussion ought to raise a question that has points relevant to the text and which deal with it orally. Besides that, the new words are writ-

ten on the blackboard and the students copy them and compose sentences. At a certain point in the proceedings, they go onto reading, which is purposive at this stage. And this is done not only that the reading may come to fruition in a natural and, hence, also interesting situation, but also that the soldiers may be educated to read. We shall achieve our goal not through quantity, since the time at our disposal is very limited, and not through quality alone, but most essential, through placing in the hands of the students the means for self advancement, through the inculcation of learning habits that enable them to continue alone. One of the most important tools in self education is the book. Reading is one of the best opportunities the teacher has to direct his students in the correct handling of the text. They don't read according to an arbitrary command, but when the need arises they open the book and read. And, too, if this need is in great measure artificial, there is no harm in that. It is the rule in working over the content that is read, for the students to pay particular and exact attention to what is said—and is not said—so that they will understand the matter under discussion properly and will learn to read between the lines.

This method of study not only interests the adult student, with great independent and spiritual activity, but carries with it several good qualities which enhance its educational value. And we see much advantage in this approach.

The point of origin for the discussion can be taken from the concrete content of the text (or from the content of a specific incident mentioned in the text); from the general content mentioned therein (or from the general content of an important concept that is mentioned in the text which is the essence of that content); or from its structure, since the role of this discussion is not in its content but in its being a means to the use of new words in conversation.

Examples:

1. *Concrete content:* If the text deals with the topic "the soldiers' orders of the day," the discussion can deal with the same content, but from a different point of view, e.g. "the students' orders of the day." And in order to draw them into discussion, it is desirable to submit the subject to criticism, an activity much en-

joyed by adults. And the problem will be: "Are the orders of the day good or not?" "What are their advantages and disadvantages?" "Is there something that needs changing in them?", etc.

By the way, it is worthwhile mentioning that such a procedure helps the soldier understand the need for orders of the day and the direct relationship that exists between how much is accomplished and properly executed orders of the day. The understanding of this issue will facilitate the process of their adjustment to camp life.

The following are additional ways to choose the topic of discussion.

2. *General content:* If the subject in the text is "Caution" (and its content deals with caution in traffic), the preparatory discussion can be related to the content of the text and deal with caution in driving, accidents, and the like. This subject is of educational value in the army. In this instance the motive is taken from the content of the text; similarly, the discussion can rely on the general content of the text, on the concept: "Caution." A discussion on caution is opened from an area other than that of traffic, and followed by a transition to reading and a comparison. This method interests and binds the students more during the reading time since they don't repeat in their reading what they said during the discussion.

Sometimes it is possible to sum up what has been said in the text in a "concept" and deal with it. For instance:

A. If a soldier who is lagging behind in training and who is habitually late is dealt with in the text, the subject of promptness and its value in the army can be discussed.

B. If it is stated in a certain text that: "American Jews are not in Israel, but their hearts are with us," we shall be led by this sentence to the idea of "sympathy"—i.e., participation with one's fellowman, whose essence is a shared heartbeat, the nearness of hearts which is possible, despite geographic distance. (It is desirable to cite, in this instance, expressions of sympathy to mourners in the newspaper: "We are with you in your sorrow, etc." which illustrates the idea well.) The same applies if soldiers, who are waiting for an answer to their letter from their commanding officer, are the

topic of the reading. The idea is "anticipation" and this subject can be developed by various examples. In order that the discussion be interesting and rouse a response among the students, the following suggestions should be noted:

1. The subject which is chosen should be from a life experience, a daily problem, known to the students.

2. It is desirable that the subject of the problem personally touch the students.

3. The problem must be concrete and not an abstract deliberation which is deliberation for its own sake, and not its content.

4. It is possible to vary the lesson and to begin with a proverb or a saying, written on the board or rendered orally, and the discussion will revolve around it.

5. It is sometimes worthwhile to begin with reading news or an item in the newspaper provided that we progress naturally from it to the problem we require for the purposes of the lesson.

3. Transition to Reading. The conclusion of the discussion and the transition to reading can be effected in several ways:

- A. The question that was raised in the proceedings remains open, and the reading comes in order to provide the answer. With the conclusion of the reading, a discussion will again arise on the answer that was read.

- B. In the oral proceedings, an answer which is agreeable is arrived at and the reading comes in order to probe whether or not the answer in the text is identical with the answer that was raised in the discussion. The discussion that will ensue following the reading will continue to deal with this point.

- C. The discussion will turn on an incident or occurrence similar in principle (in its content or structure) to the text, and the transition will be by means of a comparison between the content of the discussion and the content of the text. This point will again be clarified in a discussion after the reading.

4. Reading. As mentioned above, it is clear that the reading is the object in this stage. The consciousness of the students is directed to the text with the definite purpose of finding points which they can raise in the discussion following the reading. On the basis of the reading, it is possible to continue to explain

words and idioms which, for some reason, were not dealt with in the course of the preparatory discussion. It is very desirable that *all* the students read, since this makes for alertness and interest in study, whereas the lack of reading activity depresses most soldiers. Therefore the teacher tries to provide many reading activities and tries to restrain mechanical reading as much as possible. Essentially, the reading should be documentary, i.e., the students read sentences or sections required for the purpose of the discussion. They prove their contentions from what is or is not stated in the book. They are guided to distinguish between the different shades or meanings of the words, and every answer is accompanied by a reading of the required matter, with strict attention being paid to an exact and correct reading, i.e., to read all that is relevant and only that. This work, is not so simple, sometimes allows for repetitive readings without creating boredom—since curiosity has been aroused to learn what needs to be read and why just those words. And its value is important, too, from an academic standpoint. In certain cases, when the text permits, it is possible to read in parts. In this case, each part should be read separately, in order that the students know what exactly must be read in each part. Thus, hesitation, boredom and distraction, caused by a lack of knowledge of the exact part which everyone is to read, are prevented.

Story Content. At the beginning of this stage, the students are not yet prepared to tell fully, in their own words, the content of what they read—audit is necessary to guide them. The simplest way is through the following exercises:

1. *Division of the material into sections* and the assignment of a name to each section. The names should be listed on the blackboard.

2. *General question on each section.* A general question which demands a broader answer than one sentence is asked. At least two or three students ought to answer this question.

3. *Summary.* After completing two sections, at least two students ought to summarize the two sections before the teacher continues.

4. *General oral account.* After the teacher completes the story, he ought to suggest telling it in its entirety. A beginning is

made with step 2. If difficulties are encountered in such instances, it is enough to evoke answers to questions whose scope will increase by degrees. The value of this exercise is essentially in its attempt at a correct usage of the vocabulary learned in the same lesson. But the disadvantages in this approach are not few. Even when those under discussion are adults, where the students are not interested, the content of things already read and familiar should be heard or voiced. And the atmosphere of this exercise is over-didactic. For the same purpose we have recently arranged special exercises which also interest the students.

Example: Students, toward the end of stage 2, and especially stage 3, take it upon themselves to prepare a simple talk (5 minutes long) on any subject in which they show an interest. Because the subject is selected by the "speaker" himself, he puts a lot of work in the talk and tries to interest his friends in the class as well. It is worth noting, too, that free composition makes it much easier for the "speaker" from the standpoint of language, since he isn't tied to definite ideas or sentence structure. And as a result, he doesn't suffer so much from a lack of words and idioms. It is much easier to express oneself on a general topic because one is not bound to specific ideas and modes of expression.

5. Writing: In this stage, too, writing should be individualistic. And in stage 2, there are still many students whose writing is extremely poor. Possibly, during the first days of their studies, a number of students will have to be limited to copying. But the class at large will busy itself with composing sentences from the new vocabulary, composing paragraphs from the sentences and writing answers to questions. In the beginning, these questions must be short, requiring just a one sentence answer. Gradually questions requiring an answer of two sentences or more are introduced, followed by a composition of several sentences on a simple subject from everyday life.

And here is the difference in the writing lessons in stages 1 and 2. The teacher concerns himself as well with the improvement of penmanship and in general, with speed in writing. A student who achieves stage 2 ought to know how to write a few sentences in a proper and

correct way. We have learned from experience that, for beginners who lack education or for illiterates, there is no explanation or command which will guarantee proper writing in the correct place (on the line). But if this is explained to them graphically, they will understand immediately what is required of them and will not repeat their mistake. In order not to go below the line, it is represented, for example, as a road and the letter as a bus traveling along the road. If the bus goes off the road, it will turn over. And therefore care is needed.

We have the same thing in our notebooks and therefore care must be taken to write on the line in order that the word not turn over and become difficult to read. This analogy is not self-explanatory and needs to be explained to the students. The small "yud" which rests on the upper line is represented as laundry hung on a line. If the clothes are not on the line, they will fall and disappear, the same law applying to the letter. The concrete thing clarifies this and they understand immediately what is required of them.

The explanations worked miracles. The teacher did not have to repeat them even once and this problem was solved in a completely satisfactory way. It is worthy of note that the matter of writing between the lines is widespread, especially among soldiers from Iraq with no difference in their educational levels. Of course, those among them with educational backgrounds do not require a concrete explanation, but they sometimes require an interesting, or even a repetitive explanation.

6. Grammar: Grammar should be integrated, as far as possible, in the preparatory part of the lesson. But in stage 2 there is occasion for giving exercises in grammar, too, after the oral presentation and after the writing. Exercises in grammar should be prepared orally as well as in writing. Students in stage 2 should deal especially with changing the past to the future and the future to the past, without getting involved in conjugations. But, sometimes (according to special conditions and, especially, the educational level of the students), the noting of the root and the possibilities connected therewith should be encouraged, since, in the Hebrew language, the root is a main characteristic in the building of words, thus being a very im-

portant aid in word recognition.

7. Exercises in writing: Exercises in writing on this level will deal principally with the proper use of words and the construction of sentences in answer to questions. Detailed exercises are to be found in a special pamphlet placed in the hands of every teacher.

8. Spelling: We deal very little with spelling, because it is impossible to attain concrete achievements within the framework of a few hours. (The knowledge of spelling by the pupils in our elementary schools is proof enough!).

From another standpoint, with increased reading, errors will be reduced gradually by themselves. We, in our own program of "First Aid," agree with the words of a certain commander who said, "It is enough that I understand what the soldier asks of me in his letter." And this, by the way, is enough for the soldier too, for whom the goal of writing, which is social contact, is thus achieved.

In any event, we don't view ourselves as completely exempt from this concern. And we try at least to arouse the consciousness of the student to spelling, even though our dealing with this subject is incidental, and undertaken at the various opportunities that arise in different learning situations, and not in special units of study. Especially common are "Purposive Dictations." In the middle of the lesson, the teacher announces to the soldiers that a dictation is to take place immediately. They are to read a certain paragraph (not long) and to note the spelling of the difficult words. After they have completed their readings, the dictation is given—short, interesting and purposive. And most important, its objective is not to measure the students' knowledge, but it is a good exercise for memory. For the qualities learned for dictation, at the time of preparation for reading, aid greatly the memorization of the writing. The activity varies the course of study in a definite study unit and displays to everyone the extent of his knowledge, his progress, his achievement and his failures, and thereby the scholastic efforts of the student are directed effectively. On the completion of the dictation, the soldiers correct their own work by comparing it with the text. This exercise strengthens their memory of the words. Thus too, it is usual to exchange notebooks for correction

among themselves for variety and without fearing fraud.

During the preparatory discussion as well, the teacher calls attention to the spelling difficulties in the new word that is being taught. The same rule applies to typical errors that were made by most of the soldiers in their written daily work. If the teacher can, he introduces this study material in the coming lessons; if he cannot, he devotes a few minutes in each study unit to these errors.

Summary:

In stage 2 the lesson is to be constructed as follows:

1. Review—opening	10 minutes
2. Discussion and presentation of the problem	30 minutes
3. Reading	10 minutes
4. Summary of the proceedings	10 minutes
5. Writing	25 minutes
6. Summary of what we learned today, especially practice of the words	5 minutes

The Newspaper. In addition to the textbook, we use the newspaper as reading and study material. In the beginning of stage 2, the soldiers read just the large titles and the teacher reads about the most interesting facts. During the course of the stage, they read progressively longer portions alone according to their increasing ability in the language. The reading of the newspaper has great importance not only as a means of adding variety to the material being studied, but especially in interesting material whose importance is great because it serves as an important morale factor to the students. Those who first grope towards the newspaper are thus strengthened. The student is spurred on to reveal quite clearly the extent of his progress in the language. This material (the newspaper) has great motivational value because the adult student recognizes a need for it.

The principal levels of reading a paper should be as follows: First, emphasis is placed on a general orientation. In front of the student is open a newspaper, whose area is large in comparison to a page in a book. He is to look for the headlines, just skimming, at first, and getting

acquainted with the different items in the paper. This exercise is arranged in the following manner: After the newspapers are distributed and the students finish glancing through them, the teacher reads a headline out loud and the students try to find it as quickly as possible. At first, the exercise is held on each page of the paper separately. The next step is for them to glance through the paper and suggest what to read. (What is of interest today?) (This exercises interests the soldiers and gets them used to finding their place in the newspaper quickly.) Every suggestion is accompanied by an explanation. Thus the teacher succeeds in getting the students to speak without their sensing this purpose. And the reading is interesting because it is voluntary.

For the preparation of the soldiers to read the newspaper, lists of words, expressions and common idioms which appear frequently in the language have been prepared. This list comprises drill material which should be prepared and drilled in an informal manner. When reading the newspaper, only the words and expressions which are on the list should be taught. All the rest should be explained for the sake of understanding the item (for passive, temporary knowledge) and not as a study need (active, permanent knowledge).

Stage 3

A. Goals:

1. Increasing the vocabulary by approximately 400 additional words.
2. Relating the contents in a free manner and speaking on simple subjects during 5-10 minutes.
3. Writing compositions.
4. Writing summaries of simple passages.
5. In grammar, the establishment of the past and future tenses; the conjugations: kal, nifal, piel, hifil, hitpael.
6. Transition from reading a text with vowel markings to reading a text without them.

B. The Lesson Plan:

The lesson plan is similar in its essentials to that of stage 2, with the modification of increased rhythm and raised level. The teacher ought to pay attention to the following suggestions:

1. During each lesson the students are to write a simple composition or summary.

2. During each lesson the students are to discuss at length a given content or hold a conversation.

3. Grammar in stage 3: It is not sufficient to analyze the reading material, but about ten minutes should be scheduled for an organized teaching of grammar.

Levels within the lesson.

A. Review. It is desirable to allocate some time to the analysis of some common errors, taken from the independent work of the students.

B. Opening Discussion. The same principle as on the preceding level, except that it should be possible to make it more difficult and to arouse interest in more complex problems and thus go deeper into the matter.

Examples:

1. Sometimes it should be possible to give color to the preparatory discussion by suggesting two facts which have a definite common basis. The similar and dissimilar causes will be brought to light in the course of the discussion. And the transition to reading will consist in getting the students to decide and to explain to which of the two examples the text applies more. For example, a discussion is held of two phenomena which appear to be similar but whose causes are different—and a definite nuance and separate discipline is assigned to each phenomenon, like the two concepts *refugee-pioneer*. The discussion revolves around both of them and is followed by a transition to reading the text. And it is up to the student to decide with which of the two concepts the text agrees and give reasons for their views. In this way, it is possible to deepen the level of comprehension so that it is more appropriate to stage 3; but, in certain instances it is possible to use it also in stage 2.

2. Sometimes the comparison lends itself to presentation in the form of a judgment about a certain occurrence from life that the teacher relates or reads from the newspaper, provided that the principle of the sentence is relevant to that of the subject in the text to be read. And thus a natural transition is

provided to reading.

3. It is possible to use the structure of the text as a taking-off point, of course just when the concrete content is of little value. For example, in a certain text in which the conversation of children is related and an adult passes by and hears and interprets things in a deeper meaning that was not intended by the children, but it was possible to derive it from what was said. In this instance, the structure

can serve as a way out, in opening this section, especially if the text requires judgment, evaluation, and decision. The teacher can open with judging a certain incident which parallels it just in its structure, and afterward turn to the incident in the text in light of the same principle.

SHLOMO HARAMATI

*Director of Fundamental and Adult Education
The Defense Army of Israel*

* * *

I do not believe the proper function of a university is to teach boys and girls the elements of spelling, punctuation, grammar, and the writing of simple sentences; yet I suppose the greater part of the time and energy of the largest single fraction of the staff of the American university is spent in doing, not what the high school should have done, but what the grade school should have done for the high school. I do not believe the university is the place to begin studying a foreign language; yet another large section of the faculty is engaged in this absurdity. Like the daughters of Danaus, they yearly pour the elements of Spanish, French, or German into leaky buckets, the water running out of the buckets at the end of the year. The young have been so often assured that the English they have not mastered is the universal language of all mankind that they do not bother to learn any other—in shocking contrast to European and Asiatic youth.

—HOWARD MUMFORD JONES

* * *

Man alone has used word-symbols to stand for objects, seen or unseen, in the real world about him or for the feelings and ideas in his own world inside him. Man alone, of all animals, has organized sounds into words, words into patterns—languages. Through his language, Man has persuaded his fellows to work towards unseen goals and future purposes. Such an ability has put Man in a class by himself, which is quite a responsibility!

—CAROL DENISON

* * *

*Specialist or Classroom Teacher for FLES?*¹

AS THE FLES program expands in the United States, it brings with it new problems, among them the question of using foreign language specialists or regular elementary school classroom teachers to furnish the foreign language instruction. Foreign language teachers themselves are usually in favor of specialists because, among other things, foreign languages have been traditionally taught on the high school or college level by specialists. However, this is due to the fact that practically all instruction on the secondary or higher level is departmentalized, whereas in the lower grades instruction in the various subjects is more closely integrated. It might be pointed out in passing that even in institutions of higher learning there has been a trend in recent years to try to coordinate the various fields of instruction and to reduce the number of separate offerings in "humanities" courses and in "general education" programs.

Foreign language specialists naturally have a better command of the foreign language than the average elementary school teacher, simply because they *are* specialists. For the elementary school teacher the foreign language is just one of many subjects in which she has to be prepared, whereas the foreign language major has had several years in which to train his linguistic competence. A specialist will usually have better pronunciation, better sentence rhythm and accent than the elementary school teacher and this is important, for children imitate very well, alas in some cases all too well. They will reproduce mispronunciations as carefully as correct pronunciations, a poor accent as well as a good accent.

This disadvantage which elementary school teachers suffer in connection with FLES can, however, be minimized. For instance, they can polish up their pronunciation and accent by imitating recordings. There are on the market today, both on disc and tape, many good, but inexpensive recordings which can be used for such purposes. As is known, the Modern Lan-

guage Association is putting out records in connection with its Beginning French, German and Spanish Teaching Guides. And, of course, there are many foreign language radio programs which one may listen to, to help one get the feel of a foreign tongue.

It might well be pointed out that elementary school teachers themselves have mixed feelings about specialists. Many would rather have specialists take over their classes than try to give their children the foreign language instruction themselves, because it means a lot of extra work and preparation. It would seem desirable, therefore, to have foreign languages taught by regular classroom teachers only on a voluntary basis. We can't expect good results if we *force* teachers to undertake FLES as an added chore against their will.

To get back to the specialist again, it is obvious that he has more time to perfect himself and his methods of teaching than the classroom teacher. He also has more time and opportunity to get realia, visual and other aids from foreign embassies and tourist offices, as well as other sources, because he has only the one subject to work on. Furthermore, he is more likely to attend foreign language Teachers' association meetings and to read professional publications.

Because of greater competence a specialist may be able to use the foreign language exclusively in the classroom. When this is done it is less likely that the children will translate from their native tongue to the foreign language. They can learn to *think* in the foreign language to a certain degree, which is certainly more natural than switching back and forth from English to the foreign language, and they may learn at a more rapid rate. Even if the regular classroom teacher has the foreign language competence, it may be difficult for her to

¹ Paper read at Lexington, Kentucky on April 27, 1957 at the Tenth Anniversary of the University of Kentucky Foreign Language Conference.

justify to the pupils exclusive use of a foreign tongue during part of the day, whereas it is easier for a specialist to insist on using the foreign language during the few minutes a day that he is present. To illustrate this point, let me cite an incident from my own experience.

When I came into an elementary classroom for the first time, the classroom teacher said: "Dr. Kirch is going to talk German with you, children. He says, he is not speaking English today." With that introduction I said: "Guten Morgen." The children replied with the same and we used nothing but German for the next three months. Then I came in early one morning and, finding the principal in the room, struck up a conversation with her. Out of the corner of my eye I noticed one little girl observing us and hopping impatiently from one foot to the other. As soon as the principal left, she rushed over to me and asked: "Do you speak English?" When I answered in the affirmative, she turned to the rest of the class and announced publicly: "He speaks English!" Then I realized that the children thought I couldn't speak English and therefore they were trying so hard to speak *my* language. However, the main point that I should like to bring out is that the children in this class learned to use in idiomatically correct German sentences over two hundred words after a total of only twelve clock-hours of instruction. One factor in this achievement was the exclusive use of the foreign language during the instruction period.

Most of the disadvantages which the elementary school teacher suffers in comparison with the specialist can be reduced or eliminated by having a foreign language specialist as coordinator or supervisor in a district where the actual foreign language instruction is carried on by the regular classroom teacher. The coordinator can keep up with new developments in his field by reading professional journals and attending meetings of professional organizations. He can obtain realia, visual aids, etc. for the classroom teachers and can serve for general reference and counsel.

There are, of course, distinct disadvantages for the specialist, too. FLES instruction is frequently given for periods of twenty to thirty minutes on two to five days a week. One specialist in my home state of Delaware teaches

French to more than twenty separate classes in three schools in his school district. It must be very enervating, and sometimes tedious, to have to repeat the same material so often. An elementary school teacher runs through a greater variety of material in the course of a school day.

A more important disadvantage is that, since foreign language majors in colleges and universities are usually prepared for teaching on the secondary or higher level, they are not familiar with the problems of the elementary school. They are not likely to know the psychology of little children and the approach to learning which is suitable for adolescents and adults is not usually appropriate for children.

When I was teaching German to the first grade, the classroom teacher would suggest subjects for me to discuss which would fit into the regular program of classroom instruction. If the children expressed a desire to sing German songs or count in the foreign language when I was not present, she would allow them to follow their inclination. In the sixth grade class the teacher and I worked out a coordinated program of study of the geography of the German-speaking countries, which she carried on in English and I in German.

The real fruits of this cooperation became apparent at the end of the year when the Parent-Teachers Association asked the class to present a program for the parents. The children wrote, directed and produced, with the teacher and myself as technical advisers, a play mostly in German about a trip to Germany. A little bit of English was included for the benefit of their monolingual parents.

What are the advantages of the instruction being given by the regular classroom teacher? In the first place the elementary school teacher can best integrate the foreign language instruction into the regular school program. She knows when, where, and how the foreign language program can be tied in with the rest of the curriculum. She knows whether it should be best related to mathematics or social studies, and what methods are most fruitful for pre-adolescents. This is an especially important consideration where the "core curriculum" is in vogue, for administrators who believe that all instruction on the elementary level should be

thoroughly integrated are not likely to be receptive toward FLES if it is to be given by specialists. It is not so important in communities such as my home town, Newark, Delaware, where the administration already uses specialists for "enrichment" subjects such as art and music.

The regular classroom teacher can be more flexible than the specialist with reference to the *time* of instruction and the length of the foreign language instruction period. Several classroom teachers have told me that if the children want to count in the foreign language during arithmetic instruction, they permit them to do so. If the children want to use foreign language greetings at various appropriate times during the day, they are encouraged to. If the class is unusually interested and responsive, the period of instruction can be extended, whereas the specialist may have to dash off to the next class. Some elementary school teachers do not believe in having regular times for foreign language instruction. They may not introduce the foreign language until several weeks after the school year has started, when they have had time to build up to it, and then they spend an intensive period of time on the foreign language. A specialist who is allotted a fixed period of time would find it difficult to duplicate this approach.

Not all educators are friendly to FLES and it is less open to attack from those who are not friendly when it is administered by regular classroom teachers. Those of us who are foreign language specialists must keep in mind the fact that we are visitors in the elementary field and we do not want to be considered intruders.

Just as some of the disadvantages of using classroom teachers can be eliminated by having a foreign language specialist as coordinator for a school district, so some of the disadvantages of the specialist can be mitigated by careful cooperation between the specialist and the regular classroom teacher.

It becomes more and more apparent that there are advantages and disadvantages to both types of FLES: that carried on by the specialist and that carried on by the regular classroom teacher. Which is the better is largely an academic question at the present time, because currently there is not enough

trained personnel available in either category. It is becoming increasingly difficult for high schools and colleges to fill their foreign language specialist vacancies, and, of course, the shortage of qualified elementary school teachers is considerable. To make matters worse, many of those who are trained for elementary school teaching have no familiarity with any foreign language, because many teacher's colleges and schools of education have no foreign language requirement for graduation.

If we are anxious to get a FLES program started in any particular place, we should adopt whichever plan is most feasible for that community in the light of its resources. If there are not enough elementary school teachers in the school or district concerned who have the necessary foreign language competence, perhaps the foreign language specialist is the answer. And it is not only a question of initial competence, but also of continuity. If a FLES program is to be a success, the children must be exposed to it for several years, and those who teach the foreign language should know it well enough to be able to carry the instruction along for more than just a year or two.

If the community *does* have sufficient elementary school teachers with enough foreign language competence to start a FLES program, then their competence can be enhanced and continuity assured by having specialists available to advise and coordinate activities, as well as to provide workshops and other facilities at which the elementary teachers can improve their knowledge of the foreign tongue to keep pace with the expanding program of instruction.

For the present the expansion of FLES would seem to depend upon whole-hearted cooperation between foreign language people and elementary education people, regardless of who actually carries the ball in the classroom. The specialist can hardly carry on an effective FLES program without the assistance of the elementary teacher and the elementary teacher can scarcely carry on without the advice and assistance of some specialist.

For the future the answer to the question might very well be the inclusion of foreign language instruction in the training program of future elementary school teachers. And those

of us who are involved in such training, as college-grade teachers of foreign languages, might well consider the feasibility of revamping some of our courses to serve this end. Foreign language courses that are geared solely to developing a reading knowledge of French, German or Spanish are not likely to be of much use to the budding teacher who will be expected to teach children to understand and *speak* the language.

To sum up, we may say that the answer to our question is neither the foreign language specialist nor the elementary school teacher *alone*, but foreign language specialist and elementary school teacher working together as a team until such time as our teacher training program provides us with individuals who combine both types of competence in one person.

MAX S. KIRCH

University of Delaware

* * *

The study of words is the study of philosophy, of history, of morals. We may read a nation's history in a nation's words. Mind is there stereotyped in form and feature like the reality of life. There is often more of true history to be learned in a Dictionary, which cannot lie, than in written annals, which may be framed by prejudice, pride, affectation, misconception, or intended falsehood. Tradition is shadowy; memories may be partial; history, even, is often poetic, mixed with fiction. But a nation's language is itself, the record of the day and the hour, and the honest reality of its acting, thinking, speaking. Words are things. In everything, therefore, which they fairly indicate, they are reliable. The study of words, then, becomes something more than a detail of vocable, a tissue of sounds: "'Tis food, 'tis strength, 'tis life."

—RUFUS W. BAILEY

* * *

While our students acquire familiarity with the classics of Western thought during their academic years, shouldn't they have more opportunity to know something of the prose, poetry and legends of the Arabic nations, of India, China and Japan? Literature does not begin and end with Homer and Shakespeare. The great ideas and achievements of the human race are not the exclusive property of the West. Asians were teaching justice and the brotherhood of man long before the founding of the Western religions. Asian scholars first developed the science of mathematics.

—LAWRENCE G. DERTHICK

* * *

C'est Moi, It Is Me

SURELY most English-speaking persons, when they first encounter French disjunctive pronouns, sense a parallel between *c'est moi* and the "incorrect" but ubiquitous *it is me*. However, most of us were so impressed by the school teacher's insistence on the "correctness" of the nominative case with the verb to be that we use *it is I* although it sounds stilted, or possibly, say *it is me* but feel that it is "incorrect." The investigations of Lucien Foulet have, however, shown that the pronoun series underwent a similar development in both languages independently, and that the English development was several centuries later than the French. The writer first came upon them in reading a book by Walther von Wartburg on general linguistic problems and here offers a brief exposition in the belief that language teachers may make advantageous reference to this material when teaching the pronoun in their respective languages; for in German, Italian, and Spanish the accusative of the pronoun is never used where a nominative is the case to be expected, but in English, French, and Norwegian the accusative is used where a nominative would be the "correct" case.

Professor von Wartburg¹ discusses at some length the rise of the disjunctive pronoun in French, in order to point out the tendency in a language to preserve its inflectional character; he then shows that English underwent the same struggle, though, officially at least, with less success. In French conjugation the personal pronouns must be used with the verb but in Italian and Spanish the use of the pronoun is optional and in general is employed only for emphasis; in French one must say *je chante*, in Italian or Spanish *canto* suffices. This situation has come about because in spoken French only the endings *-ons* and *ez* are discreet; the whole singular and the third plural sound alike. Therefore, to save the inflectional character of the verb, it became obligatory to use the subject-pronoun with the verb, although in Old French this had not been so. In the paradigm *je chante*,

tu chantes, *il chante*, etc. the pronouns have become proclitic verbal adjuncts and all the verb forms are once more discreet. In Spanish the *-o*, *-as*, *a*, etc., in Italian the *-o*, *-a*, *i*, etc. of the endings remained discreet; consequently there was no need to employ the subject pronoun except for emphasis. In French, however, in the measure that the discreet verb endings were lost the subject pronoun came to be felt as part of the verb, substituting, as it were, for the missing endings of the spoken verb. Whenever an emphatic pronoun form was needed, which was disassociated from the verb or was in the predicate, the speakers gradually came to use the accusative of the pronoun, since the nominatives *je*, *tu*, *il*, etc. were felt to be part of the conjugated verb. Hence a new tonic pronoun series arose: *moi*, *toi*, *lui*, *eux*, i. e. former accusatives. From the 13th century on the nominative was increasingly replaced by the accusative pronoun when disassociated from the verb. The end result was that French made a prefixing out of a suffixing conjugation; the old accusatives *moi*, *toi*, *lui*, *eux* were raised to tonic nominatives and the old nominatives became mere inflectional signs. Von Wartburg points out how far this lowering of the subject pronoun to a mere inflectional sign has progressed. Standard French says *ma femme est venue*, but the popular language says *ma femme il est venu*; here the *il* functions as the customary inflectional sign associated with the third person verb form and the contradiction in gender is not even felt by the speaker. However, had this struggle to preserve the inflectional character of the language not taken place, Standard French would have approached the isolating stage of the French spoken by the illiterate in Louisiana, who conjugate *moi venir*, *toi venir*, *lui venir*, etc.

When all this is compared to English, interesting parallels appear. Here, too, the personal

¹ *Einführung in die Problematik und Methodik der Sprachwissenschaft*, Halle (Saale), 1943, pp. 5165.

endings of the verb were lost, so that only the -s of the third singular remains as a discreet form, *I sing, you sing, he sings*, etc., and the subject pronoun became obligatory with the verb. In the 16th century English began to undergo the same process as French had two hundred years earlier and to replace *I, he, she, they* with the accusatives *me, him, her, them* when used as emphatic pronouns apart from the verb: *it is me; Get out of court! Me, uncle!* However in English this process took place at a time when the Renaissance grammarians were beginning to examine their own language and "guard over its purity." To the grammarians the use of these tonic nominative pronouns, i.e., former accusatives, was a barbarism and only the nominatives *I, he, she, they* were considered correct. "Since the 16th century Englishmen have been saying *it is me*, and *it is I* is only preserved by the ceaseless teaching of zealous grammarians." The true state of affairs was that the subject pronouns became verbal adjuncts, as in French, and the old accusatives *me, him, her, them* became tonic nominatives, which in popular speech replaced *I, he, she, they*, where the latter were not employed immediately with the verb.

Professor von Wartburg has summarized the investigations of Foulet² and when one turns to Foulet's articles he gets a more detailed account. For not only the decay of the verb endings and the subsequent prefixing of the subject pronoun as a verbal adjunct furthered the use of the accusative as a tonic nominative but also the loss of the case endings in nouns caused the former free word order to be replaced by a more rigid pattern of *subject-verb-object*. In the sentence *It is I* the position after the verb abetted the substitution of the accusative, and speakers came to say *it is me*. Both Curme³ and Jespersen⁴ give this as the explanation for the substitution of the accusative for the nominative.

In Old English with its free word order one said *ic hit eam, he hit is, we hit sind*, etc., i.e., *I it am*, etc. By the time of Chaucer the pattern was *it am I, it is he, it are we*, etc; then in the 15th century the stage, still the "correct" one, of *it is I, it is he, it is we*, etc. was reached. This was the critical stage, for here *it* has become the subject and the pronoun merely an attribute.

As long as the verb forms changed in the paradigm the nominative of the pronoun was protected, but the single verb form *c'est it is* and the fact that the pronoun was now after the verb in the position normally associated with the accusative caused the older pattern *it am I, ce sui je* to seem increasingly archaic. After the stage of *c'est je, it is I* had been reached, these nominatives were felt to be weak; besides they found themselves in a position after the verb proper to the accusative. The accented pronoun independent of the verb had already been replaced by the accusative, since with other verbs, as we have seen, the subject pronoun had become a mere verbal adjunct and a tonic pronoun series, i.e., former accusatives, *moi, lui*, etc., *me, him*, etc. had arisen. The subjects *ce* and *it* were felt to be an "empty form," the verb functioned merely as a connective; hence the atonic *c'est je, it is I* yielded to the tonic patterns *c'est moi, it is me*.

Foulet cites the NED under the article *Me* for the earliest occurrence of the tonic *me* in place of the "correct" *I*: "Be it knowen to al men by theis presentis me, T. H. of Oxenford glouar, ordeyn. . . ." Numerous other examples are cited both by Jespersen and Foulet as well as the NED. Here are reproduced only examples from Shakespeare as cited by Foulet to show parallels to French types: (A) *Gavain et moi*: How agrees the Diuell and thee, *Henry IV*, I, II, 127; (B) *Qui l'a dit?—Moi*: Get you from our court.—Me, uncle?, *As You Like It*, I, III, 44; (C) *C'est moi*: That's me, I warrant you, *Twelfth Night*, II, V, 87; (D) *Je suis plus grand que toi*: Is she as tall as me? *Antony and Cleopatra*, III, III, II.

Jespersen and Foulet point out that the oblique case is used in the predicate and after *than* in Norwegian: *Er det dig, Harald?—Nei, det er mig, Olaf*.⁵ In Norwegian none of the

² Lucien Foulet, "L'extension de la forme oblique du pronom personnel en ancien français," *Romania*, LXI, pp. 259-315; pp 401-463; *id.*, LXII, pp. 27-91. For comparison of French and English see *id.*, LXII, pp. 51-91.

³ H. Kurath and G. O. Curme, *A Grammar of the English Language*, N. Y., 1931, Vol. III, Syntax, pp. 41-43.

⁴ Otto Jespersen, *A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles*, Copenhagen, 1949, Part VII, Syntax, pp. 220-281 *passim*.

⁵ Example taken from E. I. Haugen, *Beginning Norwegian*, N. Y. 1947, p. 43.

verb forms is discreet and the popular language uses accusatives as tonic nominatives very much as in English.

To the writer it does not seem to be irrelevant for the language teacher to point out in teaching the pronoun that in German, Italian, and Spanish the verb endings are discreet (in German, to be sure, the first and third plural are alike); we say: *ich bin es, sono io, soy yo* and no set of tonic nominatives, i.e., old accusatives now used as emphatic nominatives, has arisen. However, in English, French, and Norwegian the verb endings were drastically reduced; the subject pronouns became verbal adjuncts and a new set of tonic nominative pronouns developed out of the former accusatives. Hence we say: *it is me, c'est moi, det er mig*.

It cannot, of course, be the purpose of the

language teacher to undo the good work of the English teachers, who are striving for "correctness." When we refer to this phenomenon in English we should point out that *it is me*, though well-nigh universal, is still sub-standard. How difficult the job of teaching the "correct" form must be for the English teacher may be gathered from the words of Curme:⁶ "The plain drift of our language is to use the accusative of the personal pronoun for the nominative" and of Jespersen,⁷ who puts it more succinctly: "While it is only the position immediately before the verb that supports the nominative, the oblique case is always the more natural case in any other position."

H. K. SCHUCHARD

Drew University

⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 45.

⁷ *Op. cit.*, p. 275.

* * *

The new semanticist—with whom I am for the greater part in sympathy, by the way—exhibits an almost stigmatic petulance, as if resenting having to be as careful with words as he supposedly is. Messrs. Ogden and Richards, in their volume, *The Meaning of Meaning*, after stating their canons of a clear prose style, assure us that the canons actually produce such a style, "though not necessarily one intelligible to men of letters." This is a lower order of writing, as unfunny as the wise-crack of Mr. Van Loon, who, during a broadcast on the Curies, early in January of 1938, allowed himself to say that "the learned professors, *as usual*, were wrong." Semantics is hardly the cure for such wilful chatter. The fault lies in a permanent or passing quality of mind. Messrs. Ogden and Richards by the way, brilliant as is their book, might have spent less energy in feeling superior and a little more in making clear the meaning of *their* meaning. A semanticist who cannot make himself clear is a bad advertisement for his subject. Physician, heal yourself! Semanticist, clarify yourself!

It is necessary, if we are to inoculate ourselves against verbomania, to understand that the real trouble lies not in the words but in the psychology behind the words. The word is but a symptom, a symbol, a sign, pointing not only to an object or a concept, but to a subject and a conceiver.

—ISAAC GOLDBERG

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How to Teach Students to Think in Spanish

THERE is general agreement among linguists today that a person can express himself fluently in a foreign language in proportion to his ability to blot out words of the vernacular and think directly in the second language. Given the factors of interest, adequate reading skills in English, average intelligence, and continuous application for several years, most Americans can attain fluency in a foreign language. However, the time element can be reduced considerably if the teacher knows the principles of reflective thinking and is able to train his students in the use of this process. To review the steps of reflective thinking or the scientific method as formulated by John Dewey,* the individual is confronted with a problem which he wants to solve, he then sets up several hypotheses, tests each one until he discovers the solution, makes a generalization from his findings, and applies the results in future situations. The instructor cannot expect his high school pupils or even his college students to be conversant with the terminology used in the preceding paragraph, but he can guide his charges into an understanding of and an ability to use the scientific method as it applies to language learning. Since the writer is primarily a high school teacher he will outline the procedures he employs in guiding his pupils to think in Spanish. In order to think in Spanish the pupils must hear, see, speak, and write exclusively in Spanish. Consequently, the direct method must be employed at all times. The first day of class is vitally important because it sets the stage for all future work. It may be necessary to take the entire first period or even more time to help the pupils see the plan of operation. First of all, the teacher must sell the youngsters on the idea that the direct method will be used, which in the lingo of the teenagers, means that the class will be conducted entirely in Spanish. This is not unappealing to most children because of the novelty of the experience and the desire to communicate in a mysterious, new medium. The teacher explains that he will pre-

sent all new words in Spanish by acting them out, writing on the board all the words they resemble in English (cognates), and their opposites (*el contrario*), and using them in copious sentences so that the class can see the relationship of the new word to the old or familiar words. "If necessary I'll swing from the chandelier, jump into the wastepaper basket, or stand on my head, but I'll refuse to translate the word into English. If you still don't understand the meaning of the word after all these examples, shake your heads, and I'll pull other tricks out of my sleeves and you will finally get it," is a typical quip made by the writer. Then the teacher compares the procedure to the solving of a riddle, for example, the well-known one goes, "What is black and white and read all over?" The approach is somewhat like this: "Let us pretend, class, that you are hearing this riddle for the first time. This is a problem which each one of you is going to try to solve. To guide your thinking I am going to give you many hints: 1. This thing we are looking for is delivered to your home each day. 2. Columbus, Ohio has two widely circulated ones. 3. The word is spelled 'read' and not 'red.' 4. When your Mother is finished with it, she uses it for wrapping garbage. 5. The sections you like best are the comics and the sports.

"Now let us imagine that the five preceding sentences were all in Spanish. I would have used approximately fifty Spanish words. Let us pretend that you had learned all of these fifty Spanish words previously. This means that you would get practice in hearing and seeing them used in sentences. You need this practice as often as possible if you are going to learn to recognize them immediately. When you are asking your friends a riddle, do all of them get it at the same time? Does somebody solve it more quickly than the rest of the 'gang'? What happens when the person who knows the answer says it out loud? That's right. He spoils

* Dewey, John, *How We Think*.

the fun for the rest of you. The same is true in guessing the meaning of a Spanish word. Each person has his hunches, and he tests each one out while the riddle teller continues to ask leading questions. All the little wheels in his head start turning as he experiments with each clue. When he finally gets the answer, he must not let anyone else know because he will ruin the game for his classmates."

In the past, several well-known foreign language methodologists declared that the direct method was effective so long as the teacher presented concrete objects, but that it failed when abstractions were involved. It has been the writer's experience that the direct method can be employed successfully when introducing abstract words, provided that a careful sequence is followed in which there is an abundant use of cognates, synonyms, antonyms, definitions, and illustrations. Perhaps the best way to teach abstract vocabulary is by using it in sentences whose meaning can be ascertained through inference. It is certainly important that the pupils understand the words "sinónimo" and "contrario," so that they can follow examples like the following: "Despacio es el contrario de rapidamente. Un sinónimo de despacio es lentamente. Un sinónimo de rapidamente es aprisa." Definitions are also efficacious in teaching via the direct method: "Un camello es un animal grande. El tiene dos pequeñas montañas en el lomo. Es un habitante de Asia y Africa. El camello es un animal de carga. El transporta tambien a personas en el Desierto Sahara. No es necesario que el camello beba agua frecuentemente. El color del camello es café."

In teaching an abstract word like "trabaja," the teacher might say and write the following sentences on the board:

1. El Señor Allen trabaja en la escuela.
2. El Señor Eisenhower trabaja en Washington.
3. El agricultor trabaja en su rancho.
4. El gato no trabaja; él duerme mucho.
5. El caballo trabaja mucho; él transporta a personas y mercancías.
6. El estudiante que trabaja mucho recibe una A. El estudiante que no trabaja recibe una F.
7. El inválido no trabaja; es físicamente imposible.

Using this list of sentences the pupils could engage in problem-solving by setting up the following hypotheses:

First hypothesis: It may mean "studies" because Mr. Allen, Mr. Eisenhower, and the farmer study. The cat does not study. Nevertheless, it fails to meet the test because Sentence five would mean that the horse studies a great deal, and that is impossible.

Second hypothesis: It may mean "lives" because Mr. Eisenhower lives in Washington, the farmer lives on his ranch, and Mr. Allen practically lives in school. The word "lives" fails to meet the test, however, since Sentence four would mean that the cat does not live.

Third hypothesis: It may mean "learns" because Sentence six would mean that the student who learns a great deal receives an A. The people in Sentences one, two, and three are all learning. However, it fails to meet the test because one could not say that it is physically impossible for an invalid to learn or even for a cat to learn.

Fourth hypothesis: It may mean "travel" because the individuals in Sentences two, three, six, and seven either do or do not travel and this is likewise true for the animals in Sentences four and five. But it fails to apply in Sentence one, because Mr. Allen does not travel in the school.

Fifth hypothesis: It may mean "visits" because the persons in Sentences one, two, three, and seven do or do not visit. It cannot be said, however, that the student who visits a great deal receives an A! Similarly it is doubtful that a work horse does much visiting.

Sixth hypothesis: It may mean "works." Yes it does! The word "works" is applicable in every example.

Of course the teacher could have given additional aids such as: Un sinónimo de trabajo es actividad comercial, industrial, profesional, o agricultural. El estudiante que trabaja es industrioso; el estudiante que no trabaja es un parásito.

The pupil was confronted with the problem: "What does 'trabaja' mean?" He set up seven hypotheses and tested each one. He discovered the true meaning and can now make the generalization that "trabaja" means "work." In the future he will apply this new "meaning-carrier" whenever the situation calls for it.

Immediately many teachers who are advocates of the grammar-translation method will

object to this approach on the grounds that it takes too much time. It is easier for the teacher to say, "trabaja = works." However, when the teacher does this, he deprives his class of the opportunity of reflective thinking and thinking in Spanish. The time it takes to use these eighty-one Spanish words is well spent inasmuch as the pupils need to see and hear the words repeated. As Bossuet once said, "La répétition est l'âme de l'enseignement."

On a final examination at Ohio State University in a methods course in the teaching of foreign languages the writer asked the students to write what they would say and do to teach:

1. todavía; 2. mientras; 3. demasiado; 4. bastante; 5. siempre; and 6. quiere. All these words are highly abstract. The following are some of the answers given in the form of sentences:

1. todavía = acción que continua: Ustedes llegan a la escuela a las ocho y media. Ahora son las once. Ustedes están todavía en la escuela.

A las cinco de la mañana, la familia está todavía en cama.

Son las ocho y media de la noche y Ustedes están en un baile. Cuando son las nueve Ustedes están todavía en el baile.

2. mientras = durante el tiempo que.

Los alumnos estudian mientras miran la television.

El señor García lee el periódico mientras toma el desayuno.

Juan habla con sus compañeros mientras va a la escuela.

El señor Eisenhower juega a golf mientras está en Georgia.

Ustedes estudian español mientras están en la clase de español.

Elvis Presley canta mientras toca la guitarra.

3. demasiado = cantidad excesiva; más de lo necesario, más de lo suficiente

Juan tiene un apetito enorme. El toma cinco vasos de leche, quince huevos, y veinte pedazos de pan. Juan come demasiado.

Los capitalistas tienen demasiado dinero.

El professor da 75 ejercicios a la clase para mañana.

El professor da demasiado trabajo.

Juan está enfermo porque el come demasiados dulces.

Draw a picture of a bowl and show it overflowing.

Underneath it write: demasiado líquido.

4. bastante = cantidad suficiente

Quince huevos para el desayuno es demasiado; dos huevos para el desayuno es bastante. Setenta y cinco ejercicios para mañana es demasiado; cinco ejercicios es bastante. Ocho horas para dormir es bastante;

seis horas para dormir no es bastante. Una hora para estudiar español es bastante; diez minutos no es bastante.

5. siempre = en todo tiempo: ayer, hoy, mañana; eternal

Juan va siempre a la escuela el domingo. Roberto va siempre a la escuela a las ocho y media. Pablo mira siempre "Hopalong Cassidy" a las siete. La familia toma la comida siempre a las seis. Siempre hablamos español en la clase.

6. quiere: Draw a picture on the board of a heart with an arrow through it. Write underneath it: Romeo quiere a Julieta. Desi quiere a Lucy. Debbie Reynolds quiere a Eddie Fisher.

One assumption underlying all the foregoing discussion is that the teacher himself speaks, reads, writes, and comprehends Spanish fluently. If he does not, he will have some difficulty training his pupils to do so. A second assumption is that the teacher prepares the work thoroughly before coming to class; to do so he will find a Spanish thesaurus and a Spanish-Spanish dictionary like the "Larousse Ilustrado" quite helpful, but must supplement these books with his own colorful illustrations drawn from real life situations. A third assumption is that the teacher does not feel "chained" to a textbook, that he is open-minded and has an experimental attitude toward the teaching of foreign languages. A fourth assumption is that the teacher guides the class in formulating the "rules of the game of riddles" and does not "tell" the class what the rules are. Many times throughout the course it will be necessary to refer the pupils to the rules because they will forget them and say aloud the English meanings of the words.

The values of thinking in Spanish are obvious. Vocabulary items are taught in complete sentences, not in isolation. Consequently, the pupils learn to encompass whole thoughts with the eye and ear, and, therefore, gain increased speed and comprehension in reading. All demonstrations and illustrations are given in Spanish, with the result that the pupils learn to listen carefully and, subsequently, develop skill in aural-oral comprehension. The ability to converse is accelerated with its concomitant opportunities for socialization with one another and with native speakers.

EDWARD D. ALLEN

The Ohio State University

American Doctoral Degrees Granted in the Field of Modern Languages in 1956-57

Compiled by WM. MARION MILLER, *Miami University*

ROMANCE LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES

<i>French</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Title of Thesis</i>
	Baldner, Ralph Willis	California	The Theory and Practice of the " <i>Nouvelle</i> " in France from 1600 to 1660
	Barenbaum, Simon	Brown	"Le Théâtre d'avant-garde en France, 1913-1944"
	Bishop, Thomas Walter	California	Pirandello and the French Theatre
	*Bowen, Vincent Eugene	Illinois	Contributions from Diderot and Grimm in the Stockholm Manuscript of the Correspondance Littéraire (1760-1774)
	Bundy, Jean Davids	Wisconsin	Fréron's Criticism on Prose Fiction
	Burks, James Franklin	Indiana	La Resurrection Nostre Seigneur Jhesucrist from Manuscript 1131 of the Sainte Geneviève Library in Paris, a Critical Edition
	Cannaday, Robert Wythe, Jr.	Virginia	French Opinion of Shakespeare from the Beginnings through Voltaire, 1604-1778
	Cornay, Adele	Tulane	Edition of <i>La Vengeance Jesuscris</i> t by Eustache Marcadé
	Cottin, John R.	Montreal	Victor Séjour, sa vie et son théâtre
	Drake, George Francis	North Carolina	Voltaire's Use of Legend and History in His Tragedies of Graeco-Roman Background
	Feiler, Seymour	Northwestern	Métra's Correspondance Secrète, Politique et Littéraire: Its Content and Nature
	Freudmann, Felix Raymond	Columbia	Memoirs of the Fronde. A Literary Study
	Frey, John A.	Catholic	Motif Symbolism in the Disciples of Mallarmé
	Cauny, Marie-Odile	Pennsylvania	La Dramaturgie de Corneille
	Gillespie, Jessie Lynn	Toronto	Le Tragique dans l'oeuvre de Georges Bernanos
	Gilman, Wayne Clifton, Jr.	Tulane	A Lexical Analysis of the Prose Writings of Jean Giono
	Grenon, Russell George	Columbia	Tancrède de Visan: An Intellectual Biography
	Grier, John Miller	North Carolina	Parallel Themes and Characters in the Roman Comedy and French Farce
	Harper, Jeannette Eleane	Indiana	The Eclogues of Giovanni Pontano
	Henry, Edward Joseph	New York	Bourdaloüe, Witness of the Intellectual and Moral Crisis in Seventeenth-Century France
	Jacob, Sarah F.	Tulane	The Man and the Poet in the Work of Pierre Reverdy
	Jensen, Christian A.	Chicago	Évolution du Romantisme-l'année 1826
	Kaiser, Grant Edwin	Brown	The World of Roger Martin du Gard
	Knecht, Loring Dahl	Wisconsin	Sainte-Beuve en face de Montaigne et de Pascal
	Kolbert, Jack	Columbia	Edmond Jaloux and His Literary Criticism
	Kuhn, Reinhard C.	Princeton	Vielé-Griffin and the Symbolist Movement
	*Kushner, Eva	McGill	Le Mythe d'Orphée dans la littérature française contemporaine
	Lipton, Wallace Sheldon	Yale	The Pronomial-Intransitive Alternance and Its Relationship to the Transitive in Medieval French and Provençal
	Mahmoud, Parvine	Indiana	Échos d'Iran dans la poésie française du dix-neuvième siècle
	*Malan, Ivo Robert	Kansas	L'Enracinement de Simone Weil: Essai d'interprétation
	Marsak, Leonard Mendes	Cornell	Bernard de Fontenelle: The Idea of Science in Eighteenth Century France

* Persons whose names are preceded by an asterisk were awarded the doctoral degree in 1956; all others in 1957.

<i>Name</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Title of Thesis</i>
May, Gita	Columbia	Diderot et Baudelaire, critiques d'art
Meade, Claude Yves	California	Le Roman réaliste nord-africain de langue française, 1899-1955
Moylan, Paul Arthur	Michigan	Jérôme and Jean Tharaud: A Study in Modern French Romanticism
Murray, Jack	Yale	Jules Supervielle and the Poetic Cosmos
Perkins, Jean Ashmead	Columbia	Diderot and La Mettrie
Porter, Ellis Gibson	Illinois	Flaubert's Social Attitudes in Relation to His Artistic Theories
Pronko, Leonard Cabell	Tulane	The Theatre of Jean Anouilh
Pyle, Robert Emmett	Columbia	Voltaire's Minor Comedies and Tragedies
*Ramsey, John Anglin	Illinois	The Literary Doctrines of Flaubert, Maupassant, and Zola: A Comparative Study
Robert, Bernard	Montreal	L'Évasion baudelairienne
Russell, Olga Wester	Radcliffe	Etude historique et critique des <i>Burgraves</i> de Victor Hugo
Saisselin, Remy Gilbert	Wisconsin	L'Evolution du concept de l'honnêteté de 166-1789
Savet, Gabrielle	Columbia	André Suarès, critique
Schonthal, Haviva Haia	Columbia	Symbolist Poetics in the <i>Mercure de France</i>
Secor, Harry Renell, Jr.	Yale	Hélisenne de Crenne: <i>Les Angoysses douloureuses qui procedent d'amour</i>
Silvestrini, Angelo Giuseppe	Yale	L'Aretin et la France au XVI ^e siècle
Simpson, Harold L.	Princeton	The Soldier in French Prose Fiction from 1870-1914
Spear, Frederic Augustus	Columbia	Voltaire's Dialogues
Standring, Enid Mary	New York	The Englishwoman in French Fiction, 1870-1914
Sterling, Elwyn Franklin	Syracuse	The Theory of Long Prose Fiction in France, 1750-1830
Susskind, Norman	Yale	A History of French Relative Pronoun Constructions
Tassie, James Stewart	Toronto	The Noun, Adjective, Pronoun and Verb of Popular Speech in French Canada: An Examination of the Morphology and Syntax of the Spoken Word in the French-Canadian Novel
Uffenbeck, Lorin Arthur	Wisconsin	The Life and Writings of Hortense Allart (1801-79)
Woods, Dorothea Eleanor	Illinois	French Literature and Peace, 1919-1939
Wyczynski, Paul	Ottawa	Sources et originalité de la poésie d'Emile Nelligan
Young, William J.	Laval	Les Mystiques de Psichari
<i>Spanish</i>		
Alfieri, John Joseph	State University of Iowa	The Miser in the Novels of Pérez Galdós
Amor y Vázquez, José	Brown	Poemas Narrativos del Siglo XVI, en Lengua Española, Que Tratan la Empresa Cortesiana
Anderson, Robert Roland	California	A Study of the Theory of the Novel in Representative Spanish American Authors, 1896-1956
Andrade, Graciela	State University of Iowa	Las expresiones del lenguaje familiar de Pérez Galdós en <i>Fortunata y Yacinta</i>
Astuto, Philip Louis	Columbia	Francisco Javier Eugenio de Santa Cruz y Espejo: A Man of the Enlightenment in Ecuador
Ballew, Hal Lackey	North Carolina	The Life and Works of Dionisio Solís
Bancroft, Robert Lundy	Columbia	Ramón Pérez de Ayala; A Critical Study of His Works
Betoret-Paris, Eduardo	Kansas	El costumbrismo regional de Vicente Blasco Ibáñez
Brenes, Dalai	Cornell	The Sanity of Don Quixote: A Study in Cervantine Deception
*Brosman, Margaret Cuneo	North Carolina	The Verbal Concept of Motion in Old Spanish
Brown, Anita Dolores	Wisconsin	Linguistic Analysis of <i>St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans</i> and <i>Prologues to the Epistles</i> in M. S. I. 1.2 of the Library of the Escorial
Caliendo, Eugene Louis	Pittsburgh	Life and Works of Luis Taboada
Carney, Hal	Nebraska	The Dramatic Technique of Benito Pérez Galdós
Cauvin, Sister Mary Austin	Pennsylvania	The <i>Comedia de privansa</i> in the 17th Century
Chamberlin, Vernon Addison	Kansas	The Blind and Other Physically Handicapped Characters in the Novels of Benito Pérez Galdós

<i>Name</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Title of Thesis</i>
Cortés, Louis Joseph	Colorado	The Social Novel of Peru
Ebersole, Alva Vernon, Jr.	Kansas	El ambiente español visto por Juan Ruíz de Alarcón
Fasel, Oscar Adolf	Columbia	Unamuno's Thought and German Philosophy
Garrard, James Lathrop	Washington	A Survey of the Education of the Indians of Mexico as a Factor in Their Incorporation into Modern Mexican Society
Gramberg, Eduard Johannes	California	El humorismo de Leopoldo Alas, "Clarín"
Greenfield, Sumner Melvin	Harvard	The Stylistic Development of Valle-Inclán in his <i>Obras Dialogadas</i>
*Griffin, David A.	Chicago	Elementos mozárabes en el Vocabulista
Guerra, Manuel Henry	Michigan	The Theatre of Manuel and Antonia Machado
Guzmán, Daniel de	Yale	Aesthetic Currents in Mexico Between 1910 and 1940
Icaza, Sr. Rosa Maria	Catholic	The Stylistic Relationship Between Poetry and Prose in the <i>Cantico Espiritual</i> of San Juan de la Cruz
Jeans, Fred Wilson	Brown	An Annotated Critical Edition of Rojas Zorrilla's <i>Peligrar en los remedios</i>
King, Willard Fahrenkamp	Brown	Literary Academies and Prose Fiction in Seventeenth-century Spain
Kirk, Charles Frederick	Ohio State	A Critical Edition, with Introduction and Notes, of Vélez de Guevara's <i>Virtudes vencen señales</i>
Kline, Walter Duane	Michigan	The Use of Novelistic Elements in Some Spanish-American Prose Works of the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries
Kocher, Sister John Berchmans	Wisconsin	Machado de Assis and the Book of <i>Ecclesiastes</i> : Influences, Reminiscences and Parallels
Krogh, Richard Neal	Washington	The Growth of Guillén de Castro's Dramatic Technique as Shown by Eight Selected Plays
Leith, Clara Jean	Michigan	Baldomero Fernández Moreno: His Life and Works
Lichtblau, Myron	Columbia	The Argentine Novel in the Nineteenth Century
Martin, John Watson	Washington	Objective Criteria of Syntax and the Determination of Authorship in Spanish Literature. A Study of the Method and Its Validity
Matthews, Hester Poole	North Carolina	Historical Drama in Spain, 1850-1900
Maule, Mary Eleanor	Wisconsin	<i>Modernismo</i> in two Spanish American Novelists—Carlos Reyles and Pedro Prado
Mazlish, Constance Shaw	Columbia	Ortega and Spain
*Molina, Diego Marin	Toronto	La intriga secundaria en la técnica dramática de Lope de Vega
Nunez, Benjamin	Columbia	Términos topográficos en la Argentina colonial (1516-1810)
Perella, Nicolas James	Harvard	The <i>Pastor Fido</i> and Baroque Sensibility
Perez, Louis Celestino	Michigan	Afirmaciones de Lope de Vega sobre preceptiva dramática a base de cien comedias
Plevich, Mary	Columbia	Acides Arguedas, Contemporary Bolivian Writer
Suarez-Murias, Marguerite	Columbia	La novela romántica en Hispano-américa
Thomas, Kathleen Hickey	Pittsburgh	Modernismo in Poetry and Its Exponents: Manuel Gutiérrez Nájera, Rubén Darío and Leopoldo Lugones
Tomlins, Jack Edward	Princeton	The Nature of Gil Vicente's Dramatic Artistry
Trifilo, Santo Samuel	Michigan	Argentina as Seen by British Travelers: 1810-1860
Vorrath, John Charles, Jr.	Yale	Literary and Social Aspects of Valera's Novels
Zahn, Louis Jennings	North Carolina	An Etymological Lexicon of <i>El libro de los exemplos</i> por A. B. C.
Zeidner, Betty Jean	California	Cervantine Aspects of the Novelistic Art of Benito Pérez Galdós

GERMANIC LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES

*Babcock, Leland Stillman	California	Concepts of the Good Life in Stifter's Early Works
Bäumli, Franz Henry	California	Die Kundrun Handschrift
Brunner, John Wilson	Columbia	Herman Hesse, the Man and His World as Revealed in His Works

Name	Institution	Title of Thesis
Cassirer, Sidonie Lederer	Yale	The Short Stories of <i>Die Schuldlosen</i>
Dabringhaus, Erhard	Michigan	The Works of Oskar Maria Graf as They Reflect the Intellectual and Political Currents of Bavaria, 1900-1945
Davis, Erika Wasserburger	Radcliffe	Cosima Wagner und Friedrich Nietzsche: Eine Studie ihrer Freundschaft auf Grund der Briefe Cosima Wagners an Friedrich Nietzsche
Dyck, Wilhelm	Michigan	The Problems of the Russo-Germans in the Later Works of Josef Ponten
*Engelsing, Ingeborg	California	"Amor fati" in Zuckmayer's Dramen, 1925-1955
Haile, Harry Gerald	Illinois	The Technique of Dissimulation in Anton Ulrich's <i>Octavia: Römische Geschichte</i>
Halpert, Inge	Columbia	Hermann Hesse and Goethe
Hoermann, Roland William	Wisconsin	The Romantic Myth of the Artist's Regeneration and Its Expression in the Symbolism of Achim von Arnim's Prose
*Hoffman, Charles Wesley	Illinois	Opposition Poetry in Nazi Germany, 1933-1945
*Iiams, Carlton Laird	California	Aegidius Albertinus and Antonio de Guevara
Langsjoen, Sven Verner	Wisconsin	Aspects of Klopstock's Sentimentality
Lehn, Walter Isaak	Cornell	Rosental Low German, Synchronic and Diachronic Phonology
Lloyd, Albert L., Jr.	George Washington	The Manuscripts and Fragments of Notker's Psalter
Mathieu, Gustave	Columbia	Heinrich von Kleist as Political Propagandist
Negus, Kenneth G.	Princeton	Thematic Structure in Three Major Works of E. T. A. Hoffmann
Oppenheimer, Ernst Martin	Harvard	The Formation of Goethe's Concept of Occasional Poetry
Oyler, John E.	Northwestern	The Compound Noun in Harsdörffer's Frauenzimmer Gesprächspiele
Radner, Lawrence R.	Princeton	Religious Faith in the Novels and "Novellen" of Eichendorff
Rechtschaffen, Bernard	New York	Wilhelm Raabe's Political Views
*Richter, Leo Thomas	California	The Italian Influence upon German Letters During the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries
*Sands, Elizabeth Grunbaum	Illinois	Die Gestalt des Kindes in der Werken Franz Werfels
Schanz, John Philip	Western Reserve	The Concept of the Catholic Church in the Works of Gertrud Von Le Fort
Sirevaag, John A.	State University of Iowa	Cultural Geography in the German Novel of the Eighteenth Century
Trendota, Kristina Eugenie	Minnesota	Das Lowenleitmotiv in Ricarda Huchs Lebeswerk
Van Buskirk, William Riley, Jr.	Michigan	The Basis of Satire in Gustav Meyrink's Works
Ziolkowski, Theodore Joseph	Yale	Hermann Hesse and Novalis

SLAVIC LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES

Hursky, Jacob P.	Pennsylvania	The Patronymic Surnames in Ukrainian
Kaspin, Albert	California	Ostrovosky and the <i>raznochinet</i> s in His Plays
Krupitsch, Victor S.	Pennsylvania	Apollon A. Grigoriev and His "Organic" Criticism
Levin, Ephraim Matthias	Harvard	The Derivational Suffixes of the Russian Adjective: a Synchronic Study
Mersereau, John, Jr.	California	The Novel in the Literary Art of M. Yu. Lermontov
Rudy, Peter	Columbia	The Early Tolstoy and Sterne
Stahlberger, Lawrence Leo, Jr.	Harvard	The Symbolic System of Majakovskij

OTHER LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES

Far Eastern

Feuerwerker, Albert	Harvard	Industrial Enterprise in Late Ch'ing China: Sheng Hsuanhuai (1844-1916) and the <i>Kuan-tu shangpan System</i>
Miyauchi, Dixon Yoshihide	Harvard	Yokoi Shōnan: a Pre-Meiji Reformist

<i>Name</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Title of Thesis</i>
<i>Oriental Studies</i>		
Blair, Chauncey Justus	Pennsylvania	Heat in the <i>Riga Veda</i> and <i>Atharva Veda</i>
Goodrich, Chauncey Shafter	California	The Nine Bestowals During the Han-Wei Period: a Study of a Ritual Donation as a Prelude to Dynastic Change
Link, Arthur Ernest	California	Shih Tao-an, 312-385 A.D.: A Biographical Essay
<i>Sanskrit and Indian Studies</i>		
Nagatomi, Masatoshi	Harvard	A Study of Dharmakīrti's <i>Pramānavārttika</i> : an English Translation and Annotation of the <i>Pramānavārttika</i> , Book I
Swain, Anam Charan	Harvard	A Study of Samkara's Concept of Creation
COMPARATIVE LITERATURE		
Flint, Weston	North Carolina	The Figure of Christopher Columbus in French, Italian and Spanish Drama
LINGUISTICS		
Biggs, Bruce Grandison	Indiana	The Structure of Maori
Krishnamurti, Bhadriraju	Pennsylvania	Telugu Verbal Bases: A Comparative Study
Lefebvre, Gilles	Montreal	Le Dialecte français des îles anglo-normandes (Jersey)
McKaughan, Howard Paul	Cornell	The Inflection and Syntax of Maranao Verbs
Panunzio, Wesley Constantine	Harvard	A Study in Liégeois Phonetics

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Hitherto the living languages have not enjoyed even the moderate consideration that justly belongs to them; and the slight esteem in which they have been held is due mainly to the short-sighted policy of pedagogues who have too often sacrificed the substantial to the show, the facile, and the frivolous. If we wish others to take us seriously, if our pupils are to devote sober attention to our instruction, we must set a high standard for ourselves. No magisterial airs will help us, no lectures or upbraidings: what we need is in the first place, a thorough and ever-increasing knowledge of the matter we are to teach, and, secondly, a wise earnestness that is satisfied with nothing less than the real intellectual development of our scholars.

—CHARLES HALL GRANDGENT

* * *

Notes and News

Language Teaching on the High Seas

In recent years our world has been steadily diminishing in size, and from this process a cultural crisis has arisen. An entire world of contrasting cultures has been thrown together, as it were, in an area which, in terms of communication and travel possibilities, has become extremely small. Somehow, we know, these contrasting cultures must be reconciled with one another. We know, too, that this can be achieved only by reeducating our provincial mentalities in the direction of learning to live effectively with others in a pluralistic world. On both sides of the Atlantic people are now needed who will take the time to understand how others think and feel.

Travel is admittedly one of the most effective means of acquiring experience in international relations, but if it is to be of real value it must, of course, be an educational as well as a recreational experience. In an attempt to make European travel such an experience for American students and for American adult tourists the Council on Student Travel¹ has planned for passengers traveling both to and from Europe a unique program of orientation and evaluation which both prepares them for their European experience and assists them in assessing its significance and value during the return voyage. This program, known as TRIP (the letters stand for "Travelers' Recreation Information Program"), is a most unusual educational service which was established by the Council in 1955 as an extension of services which it had already been offering since 1947 on trans-Atlantic student ships. It is administered by the Council in cooperation with the ship lines concerned and with its various member agencies, and it uses materials from many other educational, governmental, and commercial sources. Although it is still an experimental program, in the sense that it is constantly being revised in light of the experience of each year's crossings, it already serves more than forty thousand travelers annually.

Under the guidance of a trained staff selected from among professional educators, trained recreation workers and graduate students with wide travel experience, trans-Atlantic passengers wishing to avail themselves of the offerings of TRIP may participate in an orientation program which on an Eastbound sailing includes intensive language instruction; forum-type discussions of social, political and economic problems of which one traveling to Europe should have some understanding; slide lectures and discussions on European or American art and architecture; practical travel tips; discussions of European customs; religious services; and a wide variety of recreational activities. On Westbound crossings the Council adds to these offerings a program for migrants coming to the United States and Canada which enables them to familiarize themselves with the working conditions and the customs of their new homelands and to learn the English language.

The basic educational aim of TRIP is to help travelers see things from another point of view and to prepare them to enter empathically into the thoughts and feelings of others. A most important part of the program is thus the arousing of an awareness of one's own personal and cultural attitudes as these color the effects of a travel experience. For these reasons instruction in the various languages of Europe and the forum discussions, which attempt to focus attention on current misconceptions and misunderstandings on both sides of the Atlantic, are the really indispensable items in the shipboard curriculum. This past summer I had the pleasure of participating in the TRIP program as language coordinator on the "Arosa Sun" on her voyage from Quebec to Bremerhaven beginning on June 12, and the crossing proved to be a most unusual educational experience.

Although I had been looking forward to my first shipboard teaching I had some apprehensions when I boarded the "Sun." Would students who had just finished final examinations want to study foreign languages during their first crossing to Europe? Would those going on pleasure trips be willing to concentrate on learning something during the voyage rather than just taking it easy? Wouldn't the other activities attract all the passengers more than mine would? And if by chance a few should want to study languages, would I be able to find volunteer teachers for them? To my amazement fourteen volunteers came to sign up as instructors after the large rally which we held on sailing night, and the following morning we were literally swamped at registration. One hundred students enrolled in beginning French, thirty in intermediate French, and fifteen in advanced French. One hundred and four requested beginning German; eleven wanted Spanish; forty were interested in Italian; and twelve signed up for Danish!

The language classes were scheduled to meet twice daily, and the best available ship spaces were assigned for the one hour sessions each morning and afternoon. In all spaces we had to compete against card players, other group meetings, and general ship's noises; and the seating facilities also left much to be desired. Blackboards were clip-boards with large sheets of newspaper stock on which we wrote with heavy black crayons. Everyone was good-natured about the difficulties, however, and they constituted no serious handicap in our work. As texts in our elementary classes we used the language through pictures series and recommended that our students also purchase the Berlitz phrase books for future reference and study. Both texts were stocked by the ship's store. In the intermediate and ad-

¹ Information concerning the Council and its activities may be obtained by writing to the Council on Student Travel, 179 Broadway, New York 7, New York.

vanced classes we prepared our own materials from day to day and distributed them in mimeographed form. Since the Council prescribes no one method of teaching foreign languages, I encouraged all my volunteers, even those teaching for the first time, to use their ingenuity and to adapt their teaching to the needs of their particular group and to the conditions under which they were obliged to work during the nine day crossing.

In order to gain first-hand experience in the problems of shipboard foreign language teaching (and also because I was really anxious to do it!) I taught one of the four sections of elementary German. As coordinator my main task was, of course, to supervise the progress of the language program as a whole. In order to be both teacher and co-ordinator I had to enlist the help of some of the volunteer teachers who appeared in response to a notice in the ship's newspaper. These additional volunteers substituted for me occasionally so that I was free to circulate from group to group. Our emphasis on all levels was entirely upon the development of conversational ability. In the morning period we introduced new materials, and the afternoon hour was then devoted to variation drill and role-playing. Because there were a number of German, Italian, and French passengers on board it was possible for the teachers of these languages to call in native informants from time to time. These native speakers were delighted to participate, and they not only enlivened the classes, but helped the students' progress by chatting with them outside of class in their various languages. Those studying German or Italian were particularly fortunate, for they were able to try out their newly acquired linguistic knowledge on the table and cabin stewards, most of whom were either German or Italian nationals. The more enterprising students were soon ordering their

meals in Italian or German.

The problems which arose as a result of the peculiar nature of some of the ship's spaces assigned to us (there were, of course, no class rooms), sea sickness, and the relative unpopularity of some of the instructors as compared with others were all factors which influenced enrolment considerably. In spite of all handicaps, however, our achievements were beyond my expectations. In the intermediate and advanced groups we succeeded in extending not a little the students' knowledge and facility; and in the elementary classes we were able to teach certain indispensable phrases which would enable the future travelers both to deal with certain situations and to obtain more linguistic information. All, too, had fairly good accents.

Aside from the sheer pedagogical interest of revealing how much can be achieved in the way of developing a new language skill or extending and improving an existing one during a nine-day trans-Atlantic crossing, my work as a shipboard educator offered me in yet another sense a most challenging and exciting experience. On a ship a language teacher must not only work against time, but compete with numerous other distractions, not to mention seasickness! To one who has worked only in the carefully planned situation of a school curriculum it can be a revelation to discover how much he can achieve under these unpredictable conditions. To attain a modicum of success in spite of all possible handicaps is, of course, in itself a great satisfaction, but the satisfaction of being able to help some of the passengers to enjoy a richer experience abroad is greater than words can describe.

WILLIAM H. MCCLAIN

The Johns Hopkins University

To Coin a Phrase

Once in a while, members of my family gently inquire whether I couldn't use another Japanese phrase book. I had acquired about a dozen of these when I was in the Army some years ago.

To assume that I had actually learned Japanese with their aid would be erroneous. I went to Japan in the fall of 1945 because the Army had spent considerable sums of money training me to become an interpreter for Germany; the logic of it all never ceases to amaze me. I spoke German fluently, and could get along in French and Spanish. Latin and Greek, of which I had six and two years respectively, seemed not to have been much appreciated in the service. It was fairly normal procedure for young men with language qualifications to be sent to Military Intelligence Training School, and I was no exception. We were warned, however, not to sport our abilities too openly. There had been one candidate, we learned, who never graduated from the school; when he was asked, in his first interview, what he could do, he proudly explained as follows: "I shpik et lenkviches, ent English ze bast."

Japanese, as I mentioned, remained a mystery to me during my training. When our unit embarked for Tokyo from Manila, I determined to acquire at least a smattering of ignorance before I got there. Armed with several phrase books issued for our guidance, I studied assiduously on the

one-week journey over the rough seas. One feels more secure in knowing certain basic formulae of conversation when one arrives in a foreign country, and although I was surrounded by a large number of Nisei who could have interpreted for me with ease, I did feel some pride in my partial conquest of the phrase books. On entering the building where we were to be stationed, I calmly said "yon kai" (fourth floor) to the chubby elevator operator, a teen-age girl. When she smiled at me and said "Hi!" I was delighted at the legendary speed with which the Japanese adapt themselves to Western customs. It was only by the time we were slowly approaching our destination that I suddenly remembered the phrase book. The girl had by no means greeted me in my own language, I discovered sadly; she had merely said "yes" (Hai) in Japanese.

Our living quarters were the imposing N. Y. K. Building, formerly in the possession of the country's biggest steamship company, and by now probably naturalized once again. Many of the boys who were our waiters in the mess hall had been employed before the war in similar capacities on ocean journeys. This fact I did not learn until after my first experience with the Japanese language. We were having dinner, and asparagus was on the menu. I happen to dislike asparagus intensely, but one cannot tell that to a Japanese waiter in these terms; he might take personal offence. I be-

gan an explanation with the help of a phrase book, but was soon forced to turn to my companion, a Nisei officer, for assistance. He took matters into his own hands, and began a lengthy case history in Japanese pointing out as politely as he could that his friend (I) was not at that particular moment desiring the favor of being served asparagus. This speech, couched in highly formal language, took at least a minute. The waiter nodded understandingly throughout. When a pause ensued at last, he remarked without cracking a smile: "I see; only the meat, eh?"

The lesson to be drawn from this experience I never absorbed. Within a few weeks after our arrival, the reorganized Nippon Philharmonic Orchestra was to give its first post-war concert. Being musically inclined, I made an effort to attend this memorable event. I had found out the approximate location and the exact name of the place where the concert was to be given—somewhere along a street-car line in the suburb of Kanda. Once along the tracks, I was completely lost for some time. After furtive glances at one of my trusty phrase books, I cornered a respectable-looking native gentleman with thick glasses and bowler hat, and queried him as follows: "Gomenasai; Gunjin Kaikan wa doku des' ka?" ("Excuse me; where is the Army Hall?") Now it needs to be stated, with due modesty, that my pronunciation as such was quite acceptable; I have an ear for the inflection of a language, and had practiced that phrase for several miles beforehand, with the phrase book merely as a final brushing-up. This is where I made my mistake. The Japanese immediately assumed that I knew his vernacular, and began to babble back at an incomprehensible rate of speed. I didn't catch a word. After I had succeeded in stemming the flow, I said, "Gomenasai; oshiete kudasai" ("pardon me; please point it out to me"). That did it. Another stream of explanation ensued, equally meaningful to me. Suddenly, the actual state of affairs dawned on my captive. His brow furrowed, and a look of contempt began to settle on his scholarly features. He grasped me by both shoulders, spun me unceremoniously around, pointed along the street-car line, and snarled: "Rook! Streetu-caru, twooooo stop." And before I had a chance to say "arigato gozaimas" ("thank you very much") he had pulled his bowler down over his ears and was departing rapidly across the "streetu" muttering darkly to himself.

I got to the concert, thinking of the old axiom that at least music is widely—if erroneously—considered the "universal language." I resolved to speak no more Japanese after this latest serious loss of face on my part.

Yet, as I was to find out, the Nipponese had means of defeating me even in my own tongue. I once inquired of a restaurant manager, "You don't have any cheese, do you?" whereupon he replied, "Yes." "Well," I said, "bring me a slice." It took several minutes of shoulder-shrugging and the aid of another Nisei friend to explain to me that "yes" meant "no." The manager had merely confirmed my rhetorical question, since customers are not to be contradicted. "You are quite correct," he had implied; "yes, we don't have any cheese."

And what can you expect from a country where even the conveniences of traffic direction are surreptitiously designed to trip you up? One dark night, I was attempting to drive back to Tokyo from nearby, and after fifteen miles or so on the main highway saw no signs of the city whatsoever. I finally stopped a jeep coming the other way and told the driver of my baffling predicament. He pointed out what I had hardly dared suspect; that I had been going in exactly the opposite direction from the one intended. "But," I wailed, "it says 'Route 2, Tokyo' every few miles!" "Look, lieutenant," the sergeant said with ill-concealed condescension, "don't you know this is Japan? It says 'Route 2, Tokyo,' both ways."

I checked my phrase books—all of them—when I finally got back to my billet, but found no solution to the cheese problem nor to the Route 2 situation. Even now, I continue to be spectacularly unsuccessful with any attempt at the Imperial Nipponese language, however apologetically I may approach it. Just the other day, my office was visited for exactly sixty seconds by a delegation of four Japanese gentlemen, here to inspect cultural conditions. It was 3 P.M., and I had forgotten how to say "Good afternoon." In quiet desperation, I ventured, "Is it too early to say 'kon-ban-wa'?" There was no reply; the four faces remained, for the rest of our culturally fruitful minute together, as inscrutable as that of the great Buddha of Kamakura. Now, I know I had said "good evening," but it wasn't really an insult, was it?

As my bookshelf is nowadays becoming too crowded for comfort, I was going to make a general offer, something like "if any reader would care to take a few Japanese phrase books off my hands, he is welcome to them"—but, on second thought, there is a certain mysterious sentimental value attached to every last one of them. Arigato gozaimas', anyway.

KLAUS GEORGE ROY

The Cleveland Orchestra

Do Romance Language Students Obtain Positions Using Languages?

Five hundred and sixty-one questionnaires were sent to DePauw graduates of the past twenty years who studied at least twenty-five semester hours of Spanish or French and up to fifty-two hours of the two languages or the equivalent. This questionnaire asked for information regarding other study here and abroad, their employment and specific use made of their language study. One question also asked for their estimate of the cultural value of language study.

Forty-three per cent answered the questionnaire, one hundred and eighty-seven women and fifty-four men. Of that number one hundred and six had been gainfully em-

ployed using a language although ninety-three per cent of the women were married within a few years of graduation.

Some of those who have the best positions did additional study at the Latin American Institute, Berlitz School, School of Inter-American Studies, University of Florida, University of Illinois Inter-American School, Fletcher School of International Affairs. Others studied in France, Canada, Mexico, Colombia, and Switzerland.

Most of those teaching are in high school, a few in elementary school, junior high school and college work. The high school combinations of subjects are: first Spanish only;

second French only; third Spanish and English; fourth French and English; then French and Spanish; Spanish, English and social studies; one taught Spanish, Italian and coached; another English, French and algebra; and one Spanish and education.

Many reported that they had combined languages with other skills. Their language study was an asset in the following types of companies and professions: department stores—One used Spanish as a training supervisor of salespeople in Miami, Florida. Another used French in fashion display work. A New York Macy Department salesgirl used French. At Marshall Field Company in Chicago, a food supervisor had Mexican employees under her. At Montgomery Ward and Company one was a copywriter. A college degree or foreign travel and a cultural background were required for this position. At Sears and Roebuck, a credit interviewer questioned Puerto Ricans. Working for the Red Cross, one translated French letters, and another was an actress in French plays. Singers have used their language study on television programs, and one sang in a Mexican night club. An engineering aide translated letters regarding road construction in Santo Domingo. In journalism one stated that one must have languages to reach the upper ranks in this field. A lawyer translated some foreign letters. A medical doctor has Mexican and Puerto Rican patients. One translates foreign language publications in a registrar's office. In chemical research and laboratory work foreign language publications are studied. A history professor and one working in a geography department reported need of foreign languages for research reading. In the insurance business foreign languages were used both in selling and in publishing. One did some translating of foreign letters for the General Electric Medical Products Company and another for the Soya Company.

Many have good positions doing secretarial work and a knowledge of Spanish is required. One worked for a trademark law firm in the foreign department and did translations of publications from South America. Another used Spanish with the Zenite Metal Company. One did the correspondence and Spanish translations for a shoe material exporting firm. At Lilly's one was a secretary for an Argentine doctor. At Acme Steel Company, the secretary translates letters from English to Spanish and also Spanish to English. Another requirement for that position is additional study in trade and exporting. One translates for an insurance publishing firm. Another worked for a fishing tackle exporting company. Another was a secretary for Standard Oil. One worked for a university language department, and another for Illinois Central Railroad where they keep a file of linguists for translating and interpreting.

There are positions in the publishing field for those who have specialized in languages. One of our students is an editorial assistant to the Spanish editor and has worked on *Fronteras II*, a second year Spanish high school text at Scott Foresman. Another at the same company, from his interest in Latin American history is editing history books. Another was an editorial assistant for a publisher of scholastic journals and did correspondence with foreign subscribers and advertisers and edited language articles. The requirements for this position are as many languages as possible. At Bobbs-Merrill Company, an editorial assistant in the

juvenile division uses foreign background material and does some Spanish and French translations. One is an editorial secretary for the *Revista Rotaria*, Spanish version of the Rotary Magazine. Another editorial secretary for an insurance publishing firm uses languages in correspondence. The Garth Pacific Advertising Agency which does foreign advertising gave employment to another student. One is working for the Walter Thompson International Advertising Agency which is concerned with Latin America.

The story of Mr. A. will best exemplify the extent to which languages are beneficial in the publishing field and how his language study has aided him in his successful career.

Mr. A. '36 has found that his knowledge of languages is essential in his work as editor with several publishers. His language background has been extensive, i.e. three and one half years of French, one year of Spanish, and three years of German at DePauw. Through foreign travel and more study, he has also learned Chinese, Japanese, Italian, Arabic, and Russian.

He has worked in many foreign lands. From 1937 to 1939, he lived in the Far East. For one semester, he taught German at a Chinese University. In the Navy during the war years, languages were most helpful in his duties as intelligence officer and in censoring mail written in French and other languages. As an employee of the United States forces during 1948-1950, he was a staff director of counter intelligence and used French and German.

Since the war, he has been primarily engaged in editorial work, especially on encyclopedias. He was Biography Editor of the World Book Encyclopedia during 1946-1947. From 1950 until this year, Mr. A. has been with the Consolidated Book Publishers of Chicago, for the past four years serving as Editor in Chief of their Reference Book Editorial Department. In June of this year, he accepted a new position as editorial director of J. J. Little and Ives Company, Incorporated of New York, publishers of reference and other books.

His knowledge of languages has been most useful and contributed greatly to his success. In his work it is necessary to check the accuracy of proper names of all kinds, titles of foreign publications, etc. Foreign language reference sources of various kinds are used in obtaining and checking information. He translates letters from abroad and articles from foreign contributors.

Mr. A. has written the book: *How and Where to Look It Up*, and is co-author of *Soviet Power and Policy*. At present he is engaged in making a translation of Frederic Bastiat's *Sophismes Economiques*.

Some have used languages in the armed forces. One used French in dealing with prisoners of war and in quartering them. Another did counter intelligence and censorship work in the army. Another was a French interpreter and handled the work during a train wreck. A graduate, who is now a lieutenant commander in the navy, studied more Spanish and also Latin American history and economics. His work has taken him to many countries, i.e. Truk, Spain, Portugal, France, Switzerland, Germany, Austria, Monaco, Italy, French and Spanish Morocco, Tangiers, Mexico, Panama, Nicaragua, England, and Gibraltar. He states, "The primary example of my knowledge of Spanish helping me pro-

professionally was my assignment to Spain as a translator for the United States Navy during negotiations leading to the defense agreement."

Others have positions where a language is a requirement. One did translations for Universal International Films. One woman administers a factory making food products in Puerto Rico. A young man reported that his work at the Radio Corporation of America requires a knowledge of Spanish, since the paper work is in that language. He is now training to be a sales representative in South America. RCA also has a translation department. Another student is a grain merchandiser for Glidden Paints and is training for their international division. We also have an accountant for the Mene Grande Oil Company in Caracas, Venezuela.

Several women have worked as interpreters and conversed in a foreign language. One worked for American Air Lines and another for United Air Lines. One worked with American Friends Service in Mexico. One of our students used French extensively in several positions, i.e. hostess for Empire State Express of New York Central which is the boat train and has many French travellers, for the U.S.A.F. in France and for Travelers Aid.

At pharmaceutical laboratories such as Lilly's, Abbot, Bauer and Black, and Lakeside Laboratories, many have done straight translation work, editing, proofreading, code and label work. They use Spanish, French, Portuguese and Italian, and also typing.

Those working for the United States Foreign Service report that a knowledge of one or more languages is required. Their work requires a knowledge of political science, economics and consular work. One of our foreign service officers in the State Department received his Master of Arts Degree in International Affairs from the Fletcher School. His work has taken him to Chile, Argentina, Costa Rica, Honduras, Lebanon, Syria, Iraq, Iran, Turkey, Greece,

Italy, and France. Spanish, French, Turkish, and Persian have been used at his various posts of assignment. Another uses Spanish constantly at his post in South America.

Others who work in the State and Defense Departments as research analysts state that Spanish, French, German and Italian are required for such positions.

I shall give one more example of what careers are possible when the student has studied languages. Mrs. B. continued her study of French at Mills College and the University of Wisconsin. Then she studied for a year at the Sorbonne in Paris. After teaching for several years, she became a cryptographer for the United States Signal Corps. From 1945 to 1953, she was Assistant Cultural Attaché for the United States Foreign Service. Now she is the executive officer of the United States Educational Foundation in Belgium for the Fulbright program.

A great variety of work is possible combining languages with other skills from proofreading, editing, advertising, research analysing, accounting clerical work library work, secretarial skills, political science, economics, consular work, salesmanship, grain merchandising, United States armed services, and administrative work. Also it may be combined with law, medicine, singing, dramatics, engineering, journalism, and fashion work to obtain interesting positions. Positions are available for those who qualify with companies which do exporting, use foreign information, send information to foreign countries or have contacts with foreign people. Our recent graduates have several offers of positions at salaries equal to those in other fields. I find it difficult to supply the demand for those with a knowledge of Spanish and secretarial work. There are also positions available for those who are language specialists.

EDITH B. SUBLETTE

DePaul University

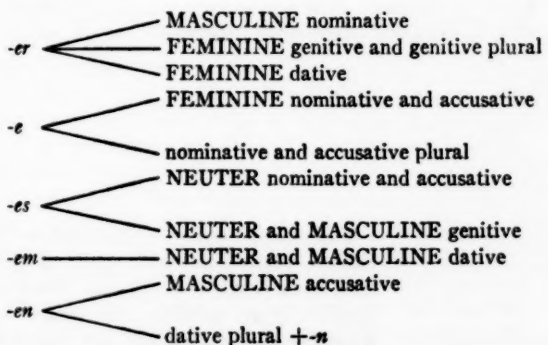
Teaching German Adjective Paradigms

For a native speaker of a language of virtually no inflections, such as English, the learning of paradigms of German adjectives can be an arduous task. Probably, few people learn paradigms for the sheer joy of their complexity. Therefore, any less painful, more reasonable, way of learning these troublesome patterns is always welcomed by the beginning student.

I have found that even when students have memorized the gender of a word, they still have difficulty manipulating the gender within the various cases. A student who will confidently write "masculine" or *der* opposite *Tisch* on an objective-type quiz will all too frequently compose a complete sentence with, for example, *dem Tisch* or even *die Tisch* when the accusative case is required. He recognizes a need for the accusative, or at least for a case other than the nominative, but ignores the relationship of *Tisch* to its article. And, more importantly, he does not relate *den* to the accusative case.

There are six inflectional suffixes attached to all German adjectives: *-er*, *-e*, *-es*, *-em*, *-en*, and a zero suffix. The first five endings bear certain relationships to certain genders and cases as illustrated in the following diagrammatic pre-

sentation:



The object of the above diagrams is to enable the student to see the relationships existing between the sounds of certain endings and certain genders and cases. In other words, he is to commence his study of adjective paradigms by memorizing that the sound of *-er* means, first of all, something masculine in the nominative case. At the same time, it means feminine genitive, plural genitive, and femi-

nine dative. He approaches the next diagram in the same way and begins eventually to "feel" the inherent femininity or plurality in *-e*, and so on through the remaining diagrams. The ending *-em* offers perhaps the least memory trouble, since it designates only one case. No one ending designates more than two genders.

In each case of all three declensions of adjectives, German needs to express gender at least once. This is the key. Then, once the gender has been expressed, except in the singular of the masculine nominative of the weak declension, the neuter nominative and accusative of the weak declension, and the feminine nominative and accusative of the weak and mixed declensions, where the suffix *-e* is affixed to additional adjectives, all following adjectives can be "neutralized" as it were by suffixing to their stem *-en*. When an article or adjective with a zero suffix, such as *ein* or *ihr*, is used, then the gender must be expressed by the following adjective. Obviously, in the case of the strong adjective declension we must use the gender-designating suffix on each adjective, although it is interesting to note that a fairly common error made by native writers is to suffix *-en* to the second and subsequent adjectives. For example, instead of *mit schönem, braunem Hut* we not infrequently see *mit schönem, braunen Hut*.

By italicizing the gender-designating suffixes, we obtain a clearer picture of the whole:

SINGULAR			
Strong:	MASC.	NEU.	FEM.
	N. guter Tisch	gutes Buch	gute Tinte
	G. guten Tisches	guten Buches	guter Tinte
	D. gutem Tisch	gutem Buch	guter Tinte
	A. guten Tisch	gutes Buch	gute Tinte

Weak:

N. der gute Tisch	das gute Buch	die gute Tinte
G. des guten Tisches	des guten Buches	der guten Tinte
D. dem guten Tisch	dem guten Buch	der guten Tinte
A. den guten Tisch	das gute Buch	die gute Tinte

Mixed:

N. ein guter Tisch	ein gutes Buch	eine gute Tinte
G. eines guten Tisches	eines guten Buches	einer guten Tinte
D. einem guten Tisch	einem guten Buch	einer guten Tinte
A. einen guten Tisch	ein gutes Buch	eine gute Tinte

PLURAL

N. gute Tische, etc.
G. guter Tische
D. guten Tischen
A. gute Tische

One of the simplest aids to association of case and gender is always to arrange the paradigms with the masculine and neuter columns side by side, so that the similarities between the two genders may be readily discerned. Unfortunately, most textbooks are still in the rut of *der*, *die*, and *das*.

Ideally, the student must react to German inflectional endings as he reacts to those in his own language, if he is to attain proficiency in the tongue. Where the sound of *s* or *z* signifies plurality to an American or Englishman, to the student of German it must primarily denote singularity. This is sometimes a difficult habit pattern to break, but, luckily, it is the only one with which English-speaking students of German must contend. There is a clear, mental field for the retention of the other sounds and their grammatical associations.

DONALD D. HOOK

Duke University

FLES in Baltimore

The *Baltimore Evening Sun* of August 3, 1957 carried a feature article with a picture of the FLES class conducted in French by Sister Mary Madeleine of the College of Notre Dame of Maryland. Note was made of the fact that many visitors including eight area supervisors of the public

schools had observed the class. The article described procedures, quoted the director of elementary education in Baltimore as well as statistics from the Department of Health, Education and Public Welfare in Washington.

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Young people now in college must be equipped to live in the age of intercontinental ballistic missiles. However, what will then be needed is not just engineers and scientists, but a people who will keep their heads and, in every field, leaders who can meet intricate human problems with wisdom and courage. In short, we shall need not only Einsteins, but Washingtons, and Emersons. . . .

—DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER

* * *

Book Reviews

LE COQ, JOHN P., *Vignettes Littéraires*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1957, pp. xiii + 238.

In the foreword to *Vignettes Littéraires* Professor Le Coq has stated as his purpose in composing another elementary reader "to bring to the attention of young people some of the social traits that have characterized the French since the dawn of history." The traits he has chosen to exemplify should do much to change the stereotype that exists in the student mind about the amorous Frenchman and to point out that the French, while having certain characteristics peculiar to them, are, after all, human, with qualities basic to all of mankind.

To illustrate this ambivalent quality of the French, Professor Le Coq has chosen sixteen stories, some of which show universal qualities, attitudes, and characteristics and others which exemplify qualities peculiarly French. To aid the students who are generally so busy struggling with the mechanics of language that "they have little time and less inclination to search for the message it brings" the author has suggested a meaning for each of the stories. Into the category of universal qualities fall: *Une Conscience*, Jules Lemaitre, showing that love of money is the root of all evil; *Le Prix de pigeons*, A. Dumas, fils, showing that education without money is useless; *Le Parapluie*, by de Maupassant, expounding the idea that excessive thrift is a vice, not a virtue; *La Pendule de Bougival*, by Alphonse Daudet, showing that sometimes the conquered vanquish the conquerors; *Le Forgeron*, Émile Zola, extolling the dignity of labor and the happiness to be derived therefrom; and *Zadig et les femmes*, Voltaire, showing the fickleness of women. The stories whose morals seem to suggest attitudes or ideas which are typically French are ten in number: *Un Mariage de raison*, by Rousseau and *Le Journal de Martine*, Miguel Zamacoïs, both indicating that marriage should be based on reason and not emotion; *Les Caniveaux*, Louis Pize, filial duty and honesty; *La Question de l'appartement*, Miguel Zamacoïs, individuality and individual freedom; *Le Jongleur de Notre-Dame*, A. France, religion tempered by realism; *Le Passé*, Colette Yver, the closeness of family life; *Grenouillau*, René Boylesve, human equality; *Lacassade*, Gaston Chérau, thrift of the peasant; *L'Enfant perdu*, François Coppée, human equality begets charity; and *Au Centre du désert*, Antoine de Saint-Exupéry, the brotherhood of man. That Professor Le Coq has accomplished his stated purpose, the above stories well attest.

In addition to the text of the short stories, *Vignettes Littéraires* contains an adequate vocabulary in the appendix, supplemented by footnotes. Each story is preceded by a short biographical sketch of the author, with additional works listed as suggested reading selections. Preceding each story, also, is an indication of the time and place of the

story as well as the aforementioned suggested meaning and a short discussion of its literary qualities. A questionnaire and exercises on idioms, vocabulary, translation, and verbs are provided in the appendix.

Vignettes Littéraires can be used whether the approach is aural-oral or traditionally grammatical. It is a worthy addition to the list of elementary readers and has the added advantage of being adult in content. The stories are pertinent, lively, and concise. The preface should be read by all teachers who must teach students who will take only two years of French. It contains an interesting discussion of values. One exception might be taken to Professor Le Coq's claims: the book seems much better suited for third or fourth semester than for second or third semester, as he suggests.

T. E. COMFORT

Texas A. and M. College

MAURIAC, FRANÇOIS, *Le Drôle*. Edited by Isabelle H. Clarke. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1957, pp. 109. Illustrated.

This little reader is one of the more interesting texts among recent publications. Although it deals with a boy of twelve years, it does not fall into the category of the usual children's story, for this boy is another of Mauriac's "monsters," even though junior grade. A psychological study of sloth, self-indulgence, and selfishness in a boy never subjected to any discipline and extremely unhappy because of his pampered existence, the story relates the changes effected in the child by a new governess and teacher who accomplishes her purpose by a combination of firmness and encouragement of the boy's latent interest in music. This brief summary may give the impression that *Le Drôle* is a very banal tale; the subject is handled, however, with Mauriac's usual artistry and he maintains a high level of interest throughout the story, principally because of the excellent characterization.

Apparently, Miss Clarke, who edited the work, is British, and some translations given in the vocabulary may puzzle many American students. For example, we learn that "torchon" means "duster," while "salmis" is translated as "salmi, ragout." Some students—and teachers, too—will be startled to find the protagonist drinking wine with his meals, without disapproval from his family or the governess who reforms him.

Miss Clarke has written a brief but adequate introduction to this text and has included excellent notes. Questionnaires, which may be used effectively as a basis for conversation, appear at the end of each section. Teachers will probably be pleased by the idiom list contained in this book. A few line drawings illustrate the work, giving some flavor to it and helping to make the story more vivid.

Le Drôle will probably be a popular text for students in the second or third semester of college French or the second or third year of high school French. It provides an opportunity to introduce students of French to the work of one of the greatest masters of modern French prose, and it should not fail to hold their interest.

JAMES F. MARSHALL

Whittier College

MOORE, OLIN H. and MEIDEN, WALTER. *Onze Contes, An Introduction to Reading French*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1957, pp. xiii+223. \$2.20.

In compiling a collection of short stories for a French reader, one of the greatest problems is doubtless to find stories which are interesting enough, yet not too difficult, either in style or vocabulary, for the student to comprehend. Most stories have to be watered-down by editing. In the process they invariably lose much of their naturalness, and they become so lifeless that there is nothing left to hold the students' interest. Or else, if not simplified, the stories are so difficult that the struggling student gives up in despair before he really begins to make any progress.

In the present collection, the editors have, they assure us, assembled a group of stories which, though not "easy," are still within the reach of students of French. Nor have they been simplified. The original expression of the authors remains unchanged, and, in general, the stories should be well received by students whose primary interest at this level is the transition from very simple material to reading of a more advanced nature. There is a good mixture of humor, suspense, sadness, anguish, tension and mystery, and every story should hold the student's attention and encourage him to read to the very end.

Daudet's *La dernière classe* is an old standby, yet for all its age it should move students to feel the anguish of the Alsations, faced with their last contact with France and the French language.

En voyage, by Maupassant, will intrigue the student, but the sad love story may leave him a little disappointed.

Marie Noël's *L'oeuvre du sixième jour*, the story of the creation of the world as seen through the eyes of a dog, will be found amusing. It cannot fail to provoke some comment, by its sly reference to man's imperfection.

La voyante, by Jaloux, is an excursion into the occult and the tale of a girl's ability to read the future. The unhappy consequences of her power may set students to thinking about human destiny.

Colette's *L'autre femme* is an intriguing study of feminine psychology—the story of a woman brought unexpectedly face to face with her husband's first wife.

Students will laugh at, yet sympathize with Henri Falk's Toto, in *Comment on fait le beurre*. The unfortunate school-boy gets his father into serious trouble by telling the truth.

La force de l'amour, by Michel Corday, is the tale of a young married couple, very much in love, who, through self-sacrifice and the deep love of each for the other, miraculously save themselves from death.

In *Drame*, Vildrac recounts a tragedy so gripping that it cannot fail to remain long in the memory of all who read it.

Michelle Maurois' *Tendresse*, a story of a mother and

daughter who cannot get along with each other, yet could not bear to be separated, is another penetrating study in feminine psychology. The same author's *Cadeau de mariage*, with its surprise, O. Henry-like ending, will amuse students.

Déclaration d'amour, by Jean Fougère, mystifies and intrigues the reader by its story of an elderly lady who receives the visit of a former suitor, who is, she discovers later, already dead.

But the stories are only the nucleus of this text. The editors have worked out a carefully planned system of exercises and practical suggestions, for both teacher and student, concerning the use of the book. Footnotes are copious, exercises and vocabulary helps are ample, and the editors have suggested a method consisting of three steps: "(1) before beginning the book, the student learns a list of ninety-eight words and twenty-four idioms which occur in a number of stories; (2) before or while reading a given story, the student learns the common words and idioms used in that story and familiarizes himself with the special meanings of certain words; (3) after reading the story, the student checks his knowledge of idioms, special meanings of words, and verb forms by means of exercises based on the story."

The vocabulary helps for each story consist of seven sections, each devoted to a special category of words: cognates, false cognates, common words, unusual words and idioms and verbs. The exercises are intended to help the student organize his knowledge of the various vocabulary items which occur in the stories. It is suggested by the editors that the teacher may choose to take the exercises up in class, or leave them for the student to use in reviewing the material for tests. In the latter case, the teacher may prefer to take up particular difficulties directly from the text. The exercises, four for each story, contain sentences for translation, pointing up special meanings or constructions, which, if the student masters them, will greatly enhance his ability to read French as French.

The editors have stated that the student will enjoy this collection of stories if he learns to read them without having to consult the vocabulary at the end of the book too frequently. Yet many teachers will point out that this "thumbing the vocabulary" has been replaced by another, and sometimes objectionable, device: the too generous use of footnotes. Obviously, the footnote is handier. It is closer to the word in question and is easily found by the presence of an identifying number. But many feel that too much reliance on footnotes also prevents the student from learning to infer meanings from context. In the present book, there are at least thirteen to fifteen such notes at the bottom of each page. Many words are translated twice on the same page, or on succeeding pages, or as many as four times within the same story, a feature which may annoy some teachers.

Some apparent inconsistencies may puzzle users. For instance, is it necessary (p. 15) to translate "toute la classe avait quelque chose d'extraordinaire et de solennel," while leaving "du reste" unexplained in the footnotes? (It is in the vocabulary.) Some idioms are found in the footnotes while others are in the idiom list, where "d'autant plus" is given three times. I could find no explanation for "serrât" on page 51. And the translation of "enjamber" (p. 15) may be considered inaccurate.

But these objections are truly of minor importance in a text which is on the whole readable, highly entertaining, and a most valuable aid in the development of a reading ability in French.

DAVID G. SPEER

Purdue University

G. GOUGENHEIM, P. RIVENC, R. MICHÉA and A. SAUVAGEOT: *L'Elaboration du français élémentaire—Etude sur l'établissement d'un vocabulaire et d'une grammaire de base*. Paris (Didier), 1956. 256 p., price 1,450 fr. (about \$4.00).

For those who are interested in *Le Français élémentaire* which was published by the Centre National de Documentation Pédagogique on January 27, 1955, under the auspices of the Ministry of National Education, this book will be most welcome. In it we have the detailed account of the principles, the methods and the reasoning which guided the Centre d'Etude in the important study which has resulted in the new basic French vocabulary and grammar. The four scholars whose names appear on the title page were the most active of the thirty members of the Commission who collaborated on this project and of these the work of Professor Gougenheim of the University of Lille, the Director of the Centre, and Professor Rivenc of the Ecole Normale Supérieure of Saint-Cloud, the Associate Director, is particularly noteworthy.

The book contains four major parts which will be discussed in turn:

1. *Historique des vocabulaires simplifiés*. This is a concise (52 pages) but rather thorough critical discussion of the significant work which has been done in various countries, particularly in French and in English, in attempting to develop a reliable basic vocabulary. The sections on Basic English and the various Frequency Word Lists in French are especially good.

One significant work was overlooked, however, and this is regrettable since in many ways it may be considered the most authentic and the most practical of all the basic word lists for written French. I refer to *A Basic French Vocabulary* published as Supplementary Series, No. 2, by the *Modern Language Journal* in 1934. The Committee which compiled it, partly on the basis of previous studies, consisted of the following scholars and teachers: James B. Sharp (Ohio State), Arthur G. Bovée (Chicago), Algernon Coleman (Chicago), Helen M. Eddy (Univ. of Iowa High School) and Russel P. Jameson (Oberlin College). Their work, like *Le Français élémentaire*, represents the best thinking of a number of experts. They, too, found the need for a certain number of supplementary words which they felt to be necessary to make their vocabulary reasonably adequate and practical.

2. *La Fréquence*. This part presents the complete list of the 1,063 most frequent words based on the analysis of a total of 312,135 words recorded by 275 different speakers. There were 7,995 different words represented. Since great care was taken to choose speakers (138 men and 126 women) from 13 different regions in France and from 4 outside of France, from 5 different educational levels and with 21 different occupational or environmental backgrounds,

the committee is undoubtedly right in assuming that this sampling of spoken French was adequate. The words are arranged by frequency of occurrence and also in alphabetical order. In each case the range as well as the frequency is indicated.

3. *La Disponibilité*. This principle and the selection of an elementary vocabulary based on spoken rather than on written French, are two of the most important and most original features of the study. It was realized almost from the beginning that the principle of frequency and range alone could not produce an adequate minimum vocabulary of spoken French. Consequently, in addition to the words chosen on the basis of frequency and range, a number of additional words were chosen largely on the basis of the principle of *disponibilité*. These words were not subjectively chosen by the Centre but were selected, on the basis of frequency, from words supplied by asking a relatively large number of French people (mostly school children) to list the first twenty words they thought of for 16 centers of interest, such as, the parts of the body, clothing, the house, the furniture, food and drink at regular meals, etc. Again every precaution was used to obtain a valid list.

4. *L'Elaboration du français élémentaire*. This final part relates how, after obtaining the most frequently occurring words in spoken French and after obtaining the additional words based on *disponibilité*, the Centre proceeded to examine all the words alphabetically and, after classifying them by subject matter, proceeded to reexamine them. This resulted in the elimination of some 372 words (254 at the end of the frequency list, 114 due to an inadequate range and 4 for other reasons). The remaining words were then reexamined and another 116 words eliminated. Finally, on the basis of valid criteria, a relatively large number of new words were added. Here the Centre acted subjectively and this part of the work is the least scientific.

Somehow there appears to be a lack of clarity here. It is hard to find the exact statement of the precise number of words eliminated and added. A brief summary at the end of the chapter would have made it possible for the reader to get a more accurate picture of the way the final vocabulary was arrived at. Unfortunately, the total number of words also seems uncertain. On page 210 the total number of different words is given as 1,368, whereas on page 12 the total was given as "1,364 (1,126 mots lexicaux et 248 mots grammaticaux)" which represents not 1,364 but 1,374 words. Is it then 1,368, 1,364 or 1,374? Obviously this is not a matter of great moment, but this is not all. Certain books which have been inspired by *Le Français élémentaire* give the total as 1,300.

This part also contains a very good chapter on "La Grammaire" which seems quite sound, and a very interesting chapter on "Verifications." Some sample recordings and a bibliography conclude the study.

L'Elaboration du français élémentaire together with the earlier publication, which alone contains the final basic vocabulary and grammatical principles, is a most valuable contribution to the teaching of French. Any course in beginning French which aims to teach the spoken language is automatically outmoded if it fails to observe these basic principles. I have long suspected that most authors of First Year French books have, for the most part, rearranged and

rehashed the same material, adding a little here and subtracting a little there. Now it should be possible to write some beginning texts that are really new, easier of mastery and much more effective. The Centre d'Etude has charted a new, more direct and, it is believed, better course. It is now up to the others—the textbook makers, the administrators, the teachers and also the students—to make the most of it.

T. C. WALKER

University of Kentucky

Beginning German in Grade Three. (An) MLA guide produced with the cooperation of the American Association of Teachers of German. New York, The Modern Language Association of America, 1956. Pp. viii+98. Loose Leaf \$2.50.

Beginning German in Grade Three is the third in the series of *first year guides* and includes the tentative recommendations of a working committee of seven and an advisory committee of nineteen experts in German language area and elementary education. Similar in outline to its French and Spanish predecessors, it promises to be of valuable assistance to German teachers in developing pleasurable language-learning experiences for children at the third grade level. Its core is made up of twenty units and five review lessons. An introductory section on educational principles provides a key to the units and a concluding part of six "floating" topics and seven appendices supplements the basic materials.

Planned around situations with which children can identify themselves, the units progress in each instance from "Repetition Exercises" to "Response Exercises" and "Dramatizations." Each unit represents approximately one week's activity based on class periods from ten to fifteen minutes five times a week, or fifteen to twenty minutes three times a week. Altogether the guide contains as much of the spoken language as an elementary school child can learn with facility and enjoyment in a year's time.

To make the learning of a second language as meaningful as possible, the units have been designed to correlate with a number of the other areas in the elementary curriculum, such as art, music, dancing, literature, geography, science, the social studies, and mathematics. The approach stressed is, of course, aural-oral and presumes a good command of the language on the part of the teacher. Formal study of language structure and the written word are deferred until a considerable mastery of the basic outlines of the language is acquired. English explanations are permitted on occasion, but translation into English is categorically proscribed.

The language patterns throughout the guide are refreshingly natural and the songs, rhymes, games, and other materials interspersed among them give a charming insight into the play activities of German children. Despite an overall suggestion of ease and simplicity, however, the structural forms actually run much of the gamut of the grammatical range. Indeed, the seasoned teacher accustomed to working with older pupils may even consider some of them too difficult. Yet he need have no fear, since experience has

shown that young children learn the most involved forms without any hardships whatsoever.

Clearly the guide reflects up-to-date thinking on the beginning stages of teaching and learning German in the grades. With it, Professors Nora Wittman, Emma Birkenmaier, Else Fleissner *et al.* have, in fact, created the basis for the successful German language program of the future.

J. ALAN PFEFFER

The University of Buffalo

FONTANE, THEODOR, *Die Poggenpuhls*. Edited by Derrick Barlow. "Blackwell's German Texts." Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1957. Pp. xxxii+101. 8s. 6d.

This edition of *Die Poggenpuhls*, according to its editor, who is University Lecturer in German and Lecturer at Jesus and Exeter Colleges, Oxford, is intended primarily for students of German literature in British schools and universities, where Fontane is not so widely known as he deserves to be. In addition to the text which is attractively printed in *Antiqua*, the little volume also contains an informative introduction, a selective bibliography, and copious notes.

Mr. Barlow's introduction is both authoritative and literate, a happy combination of thorough scholarship and intelligent literary criticism. It outlines the social structure of Wilhelminean Germany, traces the development of Fontane's social and political views, and describes the various characters of the novel. Fontane's relationship to the contemporary Naturalism and to Poetic Realism is discerningly delineated. With commendable objectivity the editor not only points out Fontane's versatile use of dialogue but also calls attention to the structural weaknesses of *Die Poggenpuhls*. This reviewer only wishes that space had permitted Mr. Barlow to comment on Fontane's relationship as a stylist to his predecessors and successors, to Storm and Keller, to Keyserling and Mann, for instance.

The 170 notes explain Fontane's frequent allusions to contemporary personalities and events, which the editor quite correctly believes might prove perplexing to the modern reader. These notes appear to have been prepared with meticulous care, and furthermore avoid the gratuitous display of irrelevant information.

Fontane commented that this novel "ist kein Roman und hat keinen Inhalt. Das 'Wie' muß für das 'Was' eintreten . . ." The episodic arrangement of the plot and the shifts in interest as the story develops, to which Mr. Barlow refers in his introduction, strike this reviewer as fairly serious faults. It seems questionable to him whether the undeniable charm of parts of *Die Poggenpuhls* and the skillful characterizations of such figures as Frau Majorin von Poggenpuhl, her snobbish daughter Therese, and her charming, easygoing son Leo can adequately compensate for its deficiencies in composition. The serious student of literature, for whom this text is certainly intended, is likely to be aware of modern Anglo-American theories on the importance of structure in fiction, and consequently disinclined to take a charitable view of the novel's manifest formal inadequacies. It seems hardly likely that this minor novel will substantially contribute to Fontane's reputation in non-German-speaking countries.

All but advanced students will find certain descriptive and narrative passages in *Die Poggenpuhls* quite difficult, as a result of marathon sentences and an abundance of participial phrases. There is one sentence, for example, that itself contains three such constructions (pp. 87-88). In general, these parts are not free from a kind of ponderousness, which stands in unpleasing contrast to the frequently sprightly dialogue. While Mr. Barlow deserves credit for making another novel by Fontane available in this useful and attractive form, it is to be hoped that in the future he will turn his attention to works of German literature that are both more rewarding intrinsically and also more commensurate with his unmistakable editorial ability.

WILLIAM WEBB PUSEY, III

Washington and Lee University

SCHUSTER, CHRISTIAN, *Elements of German*. New York: Henry Holt and Company. 1957, x+218+lx pp. Price \$3.50.

With this book Professor Schuster aims to provide a vehicle which will cover the essentials of German grammar rapidly and effectively. On the surface he seems to have accomplished his purpose. The material of the text is divided into 25 lessons, almost invariably of six pages each.

The grammar topics introduced are those treated in most elementary textbooks. The first pages (two or three on the average) of each lesson are given over to the presentation of one or more grammar topics, with accompanying paradigms and/or examples. There follows an alphabetically arranged vocabulary of some thirty words which users of the text are exhorted to memorize. As a kind of "foot-note" to all but two of the vocabulary lists are given several "useful (idiomatic and conversational) expressions." The remainder of each lesson is made up of a variety of exercises of which the first is always a reading selection. With the exception of lessons 1, 2, and 4, which offer fifteen or more unconnected sentences, these selections present in connected form anecdotal, informative, and cultural material which has considerable freshness and has not been overworked in elementary texts.

Since the reading selections regularly contain words which have not been introduced previously, the author uses marginal glossing more or less arbitrarily to expedite the comprehension process. In the first lesson, for instance, *heute* is glossed, while *morgen* isn't, English equivalents are given for *Kunst* and *Lügen*, but *Leben* and *Beine* are not treated. To be sure, all words of the reading exercises are defined in the end vocabulary of the text, but the need to use two separate sources of information would certainly slow down comprehension. The remaining exercises show considerable variety, ranging from questions, routine unembellished conjugation and declension through various kinds of shifting and fill-in exercises.

The final portion of each lesson is composed of sentences for translation from English to German. These translation exercises, which are not tied in with the reading material, consistently attempt to drill the vocabulary lists of the lessons and furnish the basis for the author's claim that there are no more than 650 words. To take into account the additional words of the reading exercises would easily treble that number. Five review lessons follow the text proper and

supply review exercises similar to those of the regular lessons. An appendix gives paradigms for declension and conjugation, a list of prepositions, and reproductions of the reading exercises in *Fraktur*. The attractiveness of the text is enhanced by random insertion of four sections of eight photographs each of which present views of the contemporary German scene.

By and large the text is oriented completely toward the grammar translation method. Its user is expected to master the principles of grammar and syntax through the working-out of exercises and writing of sentences in which the principles are to be applied. To facilitate this application of principles, the author explains grammar in greater detail than is customary in an elementary text nowadays. He uses a full complement of traditional grammar and syntactic terminology, searching continually for parallels and distinctions in English and German to illustrate the particular point under discussion. That the author is a firm believer in the importance of a good command of the verb and its syntax is evidenced by the relatively early introduction of full-scale verb conjugation. Plurals of nouns are given in the vocabularies as early as lesson 1, singular genitives are added in lesson 9 when noun declension is formally presented.

It is almost inevitable that first printings of beginning textbooks will show rough spots which subsequent printings will smooth out, and this text is no exception. It is curious that the verb paradigms in the body of the text invariably list the *Sie* form after the second person plural and never after the second singular, and that the appendix neglects it entirely. The listing of *wann* among the subordinating conjunctions (p. 90) will scarcely help the student who is confused about the equivalents for English "when." One wonders why the order of objects is not given a complete treatment when the matter is introduced (p. 14). The statement regarding *gern* (p. 20) is confusing. The addition of *mit* to *durch* and *von* as commonly used prepositions with the passive (p. 150) would certainly be in order. Problems of usage are often subjects for debate, but certainly not the misuse of *Schule* (p. 16), *nehmen* (p. 17), and *studieren* (p. 28). *Wer fragt die Fragen* (p. 11) scarcely seems necessary, and *jeder-mann* (pp. 100, 102) could easily have given way to *jeder*. The desire to whet the appetite of the American student reader has probably led the author too far afield in the discussion of *Was ist eine "Kluft"?* (lesson 15), in which the author indulges in a fanciful discussion of traditional Bavarian costume.

The text seems remarkably free of misprints, only one was noted by this reviewer: *nachts* for *nichts* (p. 151). The word order of the English version of the German example (p. 144) should be revised. Also worthy of commendation is the author's use of two poems in the reading exercise for lesson 17, the first of three dealing with the subjunctive. This seems to place the subjunctive in proper perspective as a literary form. Another feature is the resetting in *Fraktur* in the appendix of the reading selections from the body of the text, a practice still followed in literature anthologies in German schools. The illustrations which offer a pleasant change from the pictures of architectural monuments and landscapes so often dominating the pictorial material of textbooks do more than make the book attractive. They

present scenes which can serve as a basis for conversational practice or vocabulary expansion if the teacher is so inclined. The relatively long explanatory captions in both English and German will be helpful for either purpose.

In *Elements of German* one senses a mingling of the old and the new in textbook fashions. The last three sentences of the reading exercise for lesson 1 are: *Lügen haben kurze Beine; Im Winter heulen die Wölfe im Walde; Sprechen Sie Deutsch? Nein, ich spreche English.* In a changing exercise for lesson 9 we find the sentence *Die Gans schnattert* standing next to *Der Stuhl stand neben dem Tisch.* In the explanatory caption for an illustration dealing with the *Volkswagen* we find as equivalent for *Kabriolett* the word *convertible*, while *Limousine* comes out in English as *limousine*. Such dual perspective demands a great deal of versatility and resourcefulness from the teacher.

DONALD S. BERRETT

Indiana University

VITTORINI, DOMENICO, *The Age of Dante*. Syracuse University Press, 1957, pp. xv+188. \$6.00.

The Age of Dante is, in Professor Vittorini's words, "the first in a series of ages which center around the dominant figures of particular epochs" (p. x) and presents a study of the culture of the period, chiefly of the 13th century. The emphasis, as is to be expected, is on literature. Thus, of the ten chapters of the book (in addition to the introductory one on the literature of the Renaissance, for Professor Vittorini insists with fervent argument that this whole period is the early Renaissance, there being no medieval age for him!) three chapters deal with matters of culture.

With abundant wisdom Professor Vittorini sketches the historical events transpiring in Italy in the two centuries immediately preceding Dante. In addition to this, it is both instructive and enlightening,—and for later books of this kind it will be challenging,—to have an account of Italian centers of learning and their specialties in the 12th and 13th centuries. It is especially sound to report on the significant progress made in architecture, sculpture and painting during the 13th century.

The discussion of the literary picture of the *Duecento* follows a fairly conventional pattern. Professor Vittorini prefers to sub-divide the poetry of the century into popular and courtly poetry. In the chapter on popular poetry are found Cielo d'Alcamo, Cecco Angiolieri, Jacopone and St. Francis, while Rinaldo d'Aquino appears there and also in the chapter on courtly poetry, devoted to the poets surrounding Frederick II, to Guittone d'Arezzo and the Tuscan predecessors of the *dolce stil nuovo* as well as that movement itself. There is also a chapter on the prose of the century, while the chapters on Dante discuss in a sound and scholarly manner the minor works, Dante the thinker and the *Commedia*.

Other terms used by Professor Vittorini prove a little startling. For example, the political parties of Florence are divided into Blacks and Whites, rather than into Guelphs and Ghibellines. Farinata degli Uberti becomes "the famous leader of the White Party" (p. 79) while Dante himself, of an "old and noble Black family" (p. 85) later shifts to the "White Party" (p. 86) for reasons that are quite sound.

Yet, Folgore di San Gimignano, whose span of life approximates Dante's, is said to be of "strong Guelph leanings." (p. 56). This choice of terms will certainly dismay no-one, after the initial shock, but here and there an eye-brow will be arched!

Praiseworthy is the attempt to aim this book at a wider public than the one to be found in university halls. Consequently, Professor Vittorini offers sensible translations for his quotations, which are neither bulky nor obstructive. However, to carry the translation partially into proper names has a jarring effect. One may become accustomed, if not reconciled, to seeing in print *Jacopone of Todi* and *Arnolfo of Cambio*, but to swallow *Pier of Vigna* is too great a sacrifice of euphony.

The sketched illustrations of Fred Hauke would have passed, noticed but ignored, left to those who feel more strongly or more violently about certain phases of contemporary art, but for the completely ludicrous, grotesque and undignified sketch (p. 115) of the ascent of the poet and Beatrice through the spheres of Paradise. It violates all that one feels concerning the solidity of Dante and the beauty and gracefulness of Beatrice. Dante and all that he stands for are far removed from this conception, which it would have been better to omit.

The date of 1276 for the publication of Carducci's edition of early poems (p. 51) is an obvious misprint for 1876, which appears correctly in the footnote reference.

A *Selected Bibliography* rounds out this clear labor of love which comes as a welcome addition to the altogether too few works of this kind available in English. The publication of subsequent volumes in the series should be awaited with interest.

ANTHONY J. DE VITO

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LA FUYE, MAURICE DE and BABEAU, EMILIE, *The Apostle of Liberty*. Translated by Edward Hyams. New York: Thomas Yoseloff, Inc., 1956, pp. 344.

In this, the bicentennial year of La Fayette, we can well expect to see much new material appear about this great Frenchman and his work. The book under review here was published in 1956, but it can well be included in the group of writings of all sorts that will be published in the bicentennial year in honor or memory of La Fayette. Its simple sub-title—*A Life of La Fayette*—could well stand as the main title, but I am inclined to think that the authors did wisely in letting the title stand as they did. Few who see the book will fail to realize who its subject is before they open it.

Books about La Fayette have never been lacking here or abroad, but I doubt if any one has appeared that will give both the general and the scholarly inclined reader a better idea of his life and work than will the present one. Written with clarity, restraint and good taste, it tells the amazing story of this great man whose long life was entirely devoted to the principle of liberty in all its forms on both sides of the Atlantic. This devotion to an ideal, for which he ran great risks and made tremendous sacrifices, marked all stages of his life and career. Had he deviated from the principles of liberty in which he believed almost to the point of fanati-

cism, the middle and later years of his life might have been far different than they were and far more comfortable and less trying, but in all probability his name would not have commanded the respect and veneration it does today.

A short introduction (pp. 7-10) by the translator, who seems to have done a splendid job, opens the book and provides the proper perspective for the twenty-nine chapters that make up the body of the book. Two pages (pp. 334-335) are devoted to a listing of the bibliographical and source materials. I am sure, however, that the authors must have consulted many more sources than given here. But at that their bibliography does furnish a list that any one interested in pursuing his readings and studies on La Fayette further could well use as a basis for additional research. An index (pp. 336-344) of names of persons and places that loom large in his life gives an excellent idea of the extent of and range of the man's life and shows the many facets it possesses. Few men will ever have close relations and connections with so many men and places as did La Fayette in his lifetime.

There is no place in a review of this sort, which is intended to be descriptive rather than critical, to go into great detail about any one aspect of La Fayette's life or to discuss the entire book save in a general way that will, I hope, make others want to read it. The book covers La Fayette's entire life from his birth at the Château de Chavaniac in Auvergne in 1757 to his death in 1834 in his seventy-seventh year. The chapters vary in length, but it seems to me that the authors have exercised a wise balance and emphasis throughout the whole book.

There can be no question that both authors admire their subject greatly, but this does not keep them from realizing and pointing out that La Fayette, great as he was, was a human being with human weaknesses and frailties which, although they cost him dearly at times in money, public esteem and physical comfort, have in the long run added to his stature and reputation as his life gains perspective. Ambitious, reckless to some degree, idealistic to the point of stubbornness wherever the principle of liberty was concerned, we see him come to the aid of the American colonies as a youth of twenty at no small personal and political risk, follow his career in this country, study his long service to the cause of liberty in France under many regimes until his death in 1834. His role was nearly always a dangerous one, but in it he remained steadfast to his principles, come what might. Nor can we fail to mention the description of his triumphant return to the United States where he enjoyed what may well be the most extensive and continuous ovation—or series of ovations—ever accorded a visitor to our country. At times, as I have indicated, he does not appear to have followed the wisest course of action or to have exercised the best of judgment as we look back on his career in view of subsequent happenings, but we never see him deviating from what he believed a principle involving true liberty as he conceived it, not caring whether the reward was glory or even shame or imprisonment.

The book, in addition to being an excellent and highly readable life of La Fayette, is a good history—and how could it be otherwise—of the periods through which he lived. He was part of the political life of France nearly all his life in one way or another, and he really lived history.

I am sure that perhaps not all biographers of La Fayette or historians of this period will agree in every way with all the authors of this volume have to say, nor is it desirable that they should. I feel equally certain, however, that there will be few who will refuse to say that we have here an honest, fair, and well written volume without excesses and overstatements. It is certainly highly readable, and never becomes dry or boring.

It is a pleasure to recommend *An Apostle of Liberty* to all teachers of French and all others interested in La Fayette, in France and in the early history of our country. It is a good volume for ready reference and one which can be recommended without hesitation to all students and readers interested in acquiring more than a cursory insight into the many-sided life of the great Frenchman.

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Language: An Inquiry into its Meaning and Function (Science of Culture Series, Vol. VIII. Planned and edited by Ruth Nanda Anshen). New York: Harper, 1957.

At a time when the study of language and linguistics is largely dominated by the forces of mechanistic materialism, it is refreshing to come across a work the underlying philosophy of which is completely at variance with the interpretations that have had so much currency in recent times. Language, in this volume, is treated not as a "natural" phenomenon, but as a conveyor of spiritual values and a creator of intellectual (and therefore thoroughly human) forces. Imbued by its distinguished editor with a philosophical outlook which views language not merely as a tool of material communication, but also as an instrument of communion for mankind in its totality, this book marks a significant contribution to modern linguistic thought.

The abundant variety of the essays contributed by eighteen scholars whose specialization lies in vastly diversified fields lends fascination to this work. One is never allowed to lapse into the drugged sleep induced by monotonous concentration upon a single phase of what is intrinsically a diamond of infinite facets.

The contributions range all the way from N. H. Tur-Sinai's entrancing, plausible, and clearly presented theory about "The Origin of Language" (a topic worthy of the attention of any historical linguist, although the author displays, deliberately or otherwise, seeming unawareness of many recent phases of linguistic science which strongly support his conclusions) to Maritain's discussion of the use of the symbol and its degeneration, a treatment that is "philosophical" in the broadest sense of the word, from Kurt Goldstein's coldly scientific proof of the essentially symbolic nature of language and its relation to the exclusively human capacity for abstraction to Paul Tillich's multiform interpretations of "The Word of God"; from Swami Nikhilanda's highly theosophical explanation of the sacred word *Om* to R. P. Blackmur's tantalizing description of the significant elements in "The Language of Silence."

Two world-renowned linguists, Roman Jakobson and Leo Spitzer, supply, respectively, learned dissertations on the two main types of aphasia and the traditional aspects of the language of poetry (the underlying laws of the latter

are ably discussed by W. H. Auden). Charles W. Morris offers "The Language of Mysticism," with its pre-language and post-language signs, and Erich Fromm, in his "Symbolic Language of Dreams," posits the question of such ambivalent universal symbols as fire and water.

Specialized discussions of "The Language of Jurisprudence," "The Language of Politics" and "The Language of the Theater" are presented by Huntington Cairns (he makes us wonder how a man can be so thoroughly grounded at the same time in two all-absorbing fields, linguistics and the law), by Harold D. Lasswell (he fascinates us with his linguistic symbols of political change, as exemplified by the transition from "British Empire" to "British Commonwealth of Nations," as well as with his theory of symbol-splitting and symbol-combination); and by Francis Fergusson (who holds that on the stage interpretation is essential, since it expresses man as man, not as an economic or political entity).

Margaret Naumburg describes symbolism not merely in

art, but also in dreams, sex and religion, while Jean P. de Menasce points out in his "Philosophy of Translation" that words, though not an integral part of philosophical or scientific exposition, where the content is all-important, are an indissoluble element of the language of poetry, and goes on to make the essential point that the translation of religious writings leads to basic changes in the language into which such translation takes place.

Ruth Nanda Anshen who, as editor, supplies the keenly analytical opening and closing pieces, is to be congratulated on her choice of collaborators. To an even greater degree, she is to be congratulated on her outlook and on the new (while at the same time immemorially old) directions into which she channels a subject-matter, language, which has in the near past suffered from so much anguishing restriction.

MARIO A. PEI

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Some of the words in our language can be traced to a remote past; some have histories that begin but yesterday. Many are members of large families, with intertwining legend and history; others, like Topsy, "just grewed." Slow change, swift new coinage of science or slang, ancient or recent borrowings from many tongues: together they give flexibility, power, and beauty to English, the richest and most widespread language of all time.

—JOSEPH T. SHIPLEY

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Most wonderful of all are words, and how they make friends one with another, being oft associated, until not even obituary notices them do part.

—CALLOWAY'S Code

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